

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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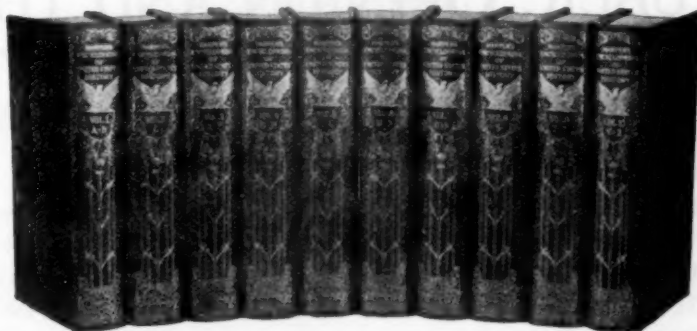
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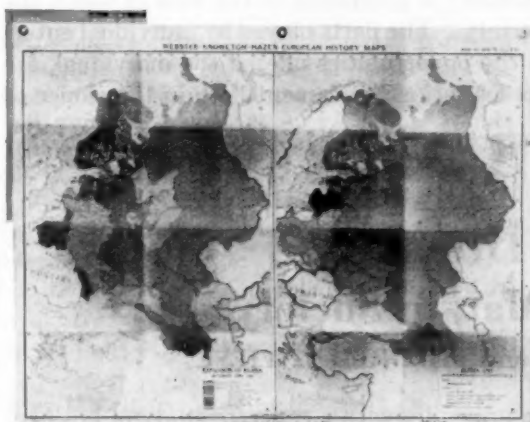
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The United States in Recent Times¹

BY PROFESSOR FREDERIC L. PAXSON, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

WHY READ HISTORY?

It is not easy to be a good democrat.

It is easy to enjoy the privileges of democracy, for these are handed to the citizen as things to which he is entitled. But when it comes to the duties that he owes because of the privileges, he is apt to find that the more seriously he takes them the heavier they become.

We are bound as citizens to be honest. We need to be as intelligent as we can. And we must have information. The complicated society that we live in will not run itself, and at every corner stands someone, able and aggressive, who knows what he wants and is quite willing to run things for his own advantage. It is not enough for democracy to take as its goal the abolition of special privileges; it must also undertake to provide a good government, adapted to the needs of the people, changing as the problems of life change, and always making its decisions in the light of real knowledge of the essential facts.

Whenever the citizen goes to the polls on election day he casts his vote on some question of fact in which both sides cannot equally be right. Government by opinion must break down unless in the long run and in the majority of cases the public is well informed, honest, and disinterested. The citizen neglects his duty if he fails to take every opportunity to inform himself upon the facts of the world he lives in and helps to rule.

HISTORY AND CITIZENSHIP

History thus becomes one of the foundations of good citizenship. We never know truly the world we see around us, for the perspective of everyone depends upon his place of residence and his station in life. It is easy to make the mistake of thinking that one who reads the papers knows the world. He does know the baseball scores, the market reports, and the episodes of the day; but he cannot see the forest for the trees.

Can one remember today what was involved in Teapot Dome, or whether Secretary Alger was a useful member of President McKinley's cabinet, or

who were the members of President Roosevelt's Ananias Club?

And what the reader of the papers remembers next day, or next year, is likely to be distorted by wrong perspective and useless as a guide to action.

It is the historian's business to serve citizenship at this point, and to provide the orderly knowledge of important facts and conditions that is needed for the formation of a sound judgment. He serves to light up the dark ages. But the darkest of all the ages of history is never in the remote past. It lies in the thirty years that ended last night, and that run back to the infancy of the present generation of middle-aged people.

These are the hardest years in all history to study.

They are the most important for the citizen because the effectiveness of both governmental and private action depends upon the accuracy of knowledge and the correctness of interpretation with which we act upon the problems that we face. Private business generally runs ahead of government because in private business men's livelihood depends upon the honesty and soundness of their decisions. A great bridge once fell into the St. Lawrence River because an engineer had been careless in computing his stresses. A house must be built upon a sure foundation and its walls must be plumb. Government cannot ever catch up to private business in its efficiency unless its voters (meaning ourselves) and its officials (also meaning ourselves) take proper heed of the facts of the immediate past and study recent history.

THE HIGH-SPOTS IN RECENT HISTORY

Duty alone ought to induce us to qualify as intelligent citizens. It is fortunately a sweetened duty, for the great issues and generous personalities that are revealed by a careful study of the last third of a century are as compelling as Washington and Napoleon, as Cæsar and Alexander; and as intriguing as the Crusades, or the Barbarian Invasions, or the Revival of Learning, or the American Revolution.

The great problems of American life since the close of the period of the Civil War have been:

1. To secure the advantages in human happiness made possible by the inventions and mechanical improvements brought about by the modern revolution in industrial affairs.

2. To broaden the individual capacity for happiness and useful service through education in all its aspects.

¹ Copyright, 1926, American Library Association. This article is No. 20 in a series of reading courses, entitled "Reading with a Purpose." Copies of the courses may be obtained from the American Library Association, Chicago, for 50 cents each in cloth binding, and 35 cents each in paper.

3. To co-ordinate the activities of all, so that in a crowded world one man's freedom shall not be another's destruction.

4. To bring the great concentrated agencies of modern capital into partnership with government so that they shall be the servants of all the people instead of their feudal overlord.

Nearly every important question of American life today is connected in one way or another with this set of main problems. Nearly every individual worth studying has played his part among them, often personifying in himself the greatest of the issues. Interest alone will carry a student far into any of them; and the farther he goes the keener will be his citizenship.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT

Take hold of the recent history of our country anywhere you will between 1880 and 1920, and soon you will come into contact with the most expansive personality of the age, Theodore Roosevelt. He did not solve its problems, but represented the best element in its spirit. He began his life at a moment when American opinion was little disposed to meddle with the blessings of American freedom. He pointed the way toward thoughtful citizenship with every gesture that he made and every pose he took. When he died, the complacency of the period of his youth was gone. In its place the American mind was crowded with the conditions of a new age pressing for solution, and with the conviction that happiness and freedom depended upon a successful solution of the problems of the new century.

Roosevelt knew that he was a great figure, and suspected how great he was. Long before he died, he began to wonder what the historians would say about him. He wrote some chapters for a possible autobiography, but never finished the work, for he died in the harness and did not see old age. Lacking this period of leisure, in which so many men have done their reminiscences, he at least made provision for a biography by another. Joseph Bucklin Bishop, a newspaper man and an old friend, had both the desire and the ability to write his life. In Bishop's two volumes we have the Roosevelt that Roosevelt wished us to have. The book does not say the last word on any of the bitter battles that Roosevelt engaged in; but as Roosevelt falls back against the background of history these battles appear much less important than they seemed while their dust and excitement were in the air. What the book reveals is a personality of remarkable vigor, in a body of unusual strength, under the control of a character that was master in its own house.

The reader of Bishop's book will approach recent history as an eager citizen approached it, and will live through events as did Roosevelt, who tried to understand and control them.

First, there will be his personality, with questions bristling on every page. What did he start with? How does he compare with the American tradition of the self-made man? How does his difference from the American type affect his services? Where was

the secret of his amazing activity? Why did so many men fight him so bitterly? Was he impulsive, or was his impulsiveness deliberate?

Second, will be the review of politics as he saw it. There is a wide gap between the condition of 1881, when a local boss selected him and pushed him into the New York legislature, and that of 1912 when he took his candidacy to the people in an open and direct campaign. Actual democracy had grown and extended, and was on the verge of crossing even the final line of sex. Tactics and strategy had changed as well. The direct primary was one of the factors, but only one. The development of newspapers was another, giving the average voter a closer view of candidate and issue. But the greatest of all, probably, was the fact that at the end of his career America was consciously trying to relate government to the facts of life; whereas at the beginning the national government had no program of common welfare and people were generally content to let business, banking, and manufacture develop as they pleased, without control.

Third, will be the picture of the United States impressing itself with a positive personality upon the world. The first century after independence, which ended as Roosevelt came upon the scene, was one of isolation, with the potential strength of the country revealed only in the effort made during the Civil War. In his generation the revolution in communication by water, rail, and wire brought nations into close contact and bitter rivalry. Lacking the desire or need to "grab," the United States found itself among eager nations grasping for their own advantage. What the Monroe Doctrine sought to do for America, the "open door" sought for Asia, and "self-determination" for the world. From the Spanish War to the World War every year, almost every day, found the United States drawn closer to the world outside. And Roosevelt was a cosmopolitan American, knowing European peoples and leaders, and knowing more of what America was to have to face than most of the political figures of his age.

Fourth, comes the picture of American life, as it shifted from the farm to the city and from the city out again into the suburbs and the playing fields. It is a life of strong contrasts that Roosevelt knew, with the roughness and elemental virtues or vices of the frontier on one hand, and the sophisticated society of politics and letters on the other. Gentleman that he was, from a family that had been cultivated and well-to-do for generations, he had the approach to cowboy and to king. It is equally typical that Roosevelt advised a western friend who was lunching at the White House not to shoot Lord Bryce there lest it occasion an international scandal, and that he told the German emperor that he was the only monarch he had met who could carry his ward in New York City. And he knew monarchs as well as cowboys. If he had not been politician, and naturalist, and hunter of big game, he might easily have been a man of letters and historian. In his later years he described himself as "an elderly literary

man of pronounced domestic tastes," and his letters to his children are among our classics of domestic literature. That a man could live in America such a life as Roosevelt did speaks well for America. That he could live it amid the distractions of political and industrial revolutions, speaks well for him, and makes the merely social side of his biography a great source for the history of our times.

THE UPS AND DOWNS OF POLITICS

The political changes of the recent period, the world relations of the United States, and the way American life was lived, will all require fuller illustration than any one life can give, even one as full as Roosevelt's was. For the first of these—the political events—it will be profitable to survey the background of recent years in order to get the time and place relationships of the events as they occur. The one thing that we may be certain of in the field of history is the fact that no event happens earlier than its cause. The development from cause to effect, and the transition of each effect into a new cause, bring into existence a sequence of things that cannot be understood except as time is taken into account. Dates are not history in themselves; but without dates, and the events that give them life, history becomes a jargon of episodes that mean nothing and teach nothing.

There is no more convenient way of connecting events of national importance than that of dealing with them in relation to the presidents of the United States whose terms block out our history in four-year tracts. It will be an interesting study to inquire which of the presidents of the last half-century rose to their high office because they represented something that was vital in the effort of our people to solve their problems, and which of them were elevated by intrigue or accident. But whether they stand for real things or are merely figureheads, each of their administrations has to some extent marked a break in problem or in treatment.

My own "Recent History" will perhaps serve as well as any other general book for the reader who wishes to build up a background. There are other books in the same field, and good ones too, by Lingley, Shippee, and Muzzey, to mention only a few. We all labor under the disadvantage that is unavoidable in the study and writing of recent history—we cannot know it all. New materials that are as yet locked up in private letter files or in secret archives of governments may become available at any moment, and may greatly change the view that must be held of accepted facts. But the main dimensions of our generation are fairly well outlined, and it is not likely that new discoveries will revolutionize the picture however they may modify its details.

Our generation is preceded by the period of reconstruction that followed the Civil War. And it ends in another period of the same sort, for we are still trying to bring back the peace that was ruptured when Austria attacked Serbia in 1914. Between these two periods of reconstruction our recent history covers the economic revolution, the political read-

justments, and the questions involved in expanding world interests. We have seen the old contrast between the East and the western frontier come to an end, for the frontier disappeared early in our period. With the frontier gone, American society began for the first time to pile up upon itself in congestion and discomfort, and clashes between classes which were noticeably absent before the Civil War appeared on every hand.

We have in our period great ideas that have provided the keynotes for political campaigns. Free trade and the tariff, free silver, and progressivism as well as populism have all had their day in court, while each one of them, whether it succeeded or collapsed, has helped to change the nation. Never have we come out of a great debate without some change. We have Roosevelt to deal with, and Cleveland and Bryan and Wilson. There are Hanna and Penrose and Lodge and Colonel House; while in the field of industry are types like Carnegie, Hill, Harriman, Rockefeller, and Henry Ford. The lines are not sharp that mark off the field of politics from business. Sometimes the fighting is on one side of the line, sometimes on the other. But through it all the American structure changes and grows, until in the World War it reveals unsuspected strength, and the power to deliver it.

JOHN HAY AND WALTER HINES PAGE

There are two biographies, both literary monuments, that stand near the head of our present literature upon world relations. One is the life of John Hay who was secretary of state at the critical moment 1898-1905 when the United States was feeling its way into world affairs; the other contains the letters of Walter Hines Page who was ambassador in London before and during the World War.

It is an old American tradition that sends abroad as ministers to foreign countries men who have gained distinction in the world of letters. One thinks of James Russell Lowell, George Bancroft, and John Lothrop Motley as ministers of this sort. It is a kindly tradition, but its consequence has often been that the United States has been represented by a well-meaning amateur, whereas the European diplomats have been men for whom diplomacy was a life-long profession. And sometimes American policies have failed to carry through because of our unwillingness to develop a professional diplomacy for ourselves. When John Hay was sent to London by President McKinley in 1897 he represented this literary tradition, but he was far from being one of the amateurs in diplomacy.

There are three aspects of John Hay that entered into his training and the service he rendered to his people. First is his association with Abraham Lincoln. Hay was fresh from college, with his head filled with the poetry that more than once leaked out, when Lincoln took him to Washington as a secretary. In this post for four years he learned not only his great chief, but American life under the strain of war. His literary and diplomatic talents made him able to serve Lincoln well. There is a tradition that

it was he who wrote for Lincoln the famous letter to Mrs. Bixby who was believed to have had five sons die on the battlefield. Certainly his gift with the pen never failed his need. Two decades after the Civil War Hay assisted another of the Lincoln secretaries in the preparation of a monumental life of Abraham Lincoln. Together they did more than make a record of their chief; they sketched the outlines of the real Lincoln who had never been fully appreciated while he lived. And since their work was done Lincoln has grown steadily into one of the great figures of all time.

Second in the Hay episodes is the long period between the Civil War and the Spanish War when he was generally free from the cares of important office. He was a man of letters, journalist, roving diplomat. He wrote an anonymous "best-seller" of the early eighties, "The Breadwinners," edited the *New York Tribune* while its proprietor, Whitelaw Reid, was away getting married, traveled much, and knew Washington as well as foreign capitals. Blest with ample means he was free from obligations and distractions. Never robust in health, his wealth allowed him to husband what he had. Except for his "Abraham Lincoln" this period might be regarded as aimless and unproductive, but he was laying up a capital of acquaintance and understanding that paid its dividends after 1897.

The third period begins with his short term in London, and ends with his six years in the State Department. In these six years he performed a task that ranks him among the greatest of our foreign secretaries. The ideal of the "open door" was not his invention, but it was he who elaborated it and brought the European powers to a somewhat reluctant acceptance of it. The task of Woodrow Wilson as spiritual leader of the World War was the easier because of what Hay had done to prepare the way.

Throughout these episodes, Thayer guides the fascinating story of Hay's career. He lets his subject do the talking wherever it is possible; and since there were probably no better letters than Hay's written in this country in his time, there is charm on every page. There is more, however. Here is another picture of American life, lived on its higher levels, to contrast with that afforded by Hay's friend and chief, Roosevelt; and here is exhibited as high a cultivation as the United States has produced.

Walter Hines Page practiced his profession of letters more diligently than Hay, and was an active editor of an important magazine when Woodrow Wilson made him ambassador to England in 1913. Like Wilson he was a southerner and a Johns Hopkins man. No educational center of our period did its work better or passed on to its students more of the spirit of scholarship and the spark of leadership than did Hopkins in its first formative years. It was from this group that Wilson selected not only Page, but Newton D. Baker and Frederic C. Howe. Page had stayed out of politics until Wilson sent him to St. James.

Never was there a more momentous post than London after 1913. At the beginning of the new administration the United States was isolated in diplomacy, and lacked sympathetic contacts with most of its larger neighbors. Latin America was intensely suspicious, Japan was hurt, England was resentful because of the interpretation that Congress had chosen to place upon that part of the Panama Canal treaty that had to do with equal tolls to all. The approaching opening of the canal brought to a head all these tense relationships; and it was Page's duty, for his chief, to soothe and explain, and to convince Europe of the good intention of the United States.

Day by day he wrote his formal dispatches to the State Department, and night by night he wrote directly to the President, telling him those things that he did not dare put into his formal notes, and explaining England at informal length. In the second year of his mission came the outbreak of the World War, which he sensed at once as a struggle of democratic government for existence. His sympathies were with the Allies from the beginning, and he early came to the conclusion that their cause was that of the United States, and that the United States could not forever remain neutral in the struggle. His letters home told this story with its various shiftings from day to day. All Washington watched the world through Page's eyes, and through many other eyes in different stations. He saw neutrality at stake, and the rights of peaceful nations, and he felt the difficulties of nationality and ignorance that stood in the way of the formation of a clear American opinion upon the merits of the war. The same idea of democratic government that ultimately threw the United States against Germany and her associates required that the United States should not go to war until war was recognized as inevitable by the people. This recognition was slow in coming, and Page in London had to stand what was for him a heart-breaking delay for nearly three years.

Wilson and Page ceased to see alike early in the war. Their difference of views did not lead to open controversy or to Page's recall, but Page lost confidence in Wilson, while Wilson with the greater responsibilities upon his back ceased to trust Page as a guide in foreign policy. The letters continued, however, with short intervals and in great detail. Whatever Page's opinion, and however wise his policy, his ability as a reporter of English events cannot be questioned. He loved the English, and they liked him. His speeches to English audiences continued the tradition that the American minister was an ambassador to the English people at large. It was a great day for him when at last the United States found its way into the war.

There is, and will be, room for an honest difference of opinion as to Page's success as an ambassador. There are some who maintain that an ambassador must see and think and talk in close communion with his chief. If this is to be the definition, then Page failed. But if it be the true function of an ambassa-

dor to report what he sees with his own eyes, regardless of whether it give pleasure at home or not, then Page must rank high among foreign ministers; and Wilson who maintained and supported him, though differing flatly with many of his opinions, becomes a generous figure among the rulers.

There is no part of the Page letters that does not help to construct a high ideal of an American gentleman and to illuminate the path that has led the United States from isolation into world affairs.

THE LIFE OF THE PEOPLE

With the revolution in industry that wrought the great change in our life between 1880 and 1904, there came a new set of conditions that affected the opportunity of the individual to life and happiness. Always America had prided itself on being a land of free opportunity. For three hundred years, a large part of each new generation of young people set to work to make new farms, and graduated in middle life into a sort of freedom and independence that the peasant populations of Europe knew little of. American society was a society of individuals, notably free from the sharp barriers of caste; and American democracy reflected this freedom.

But the free lands were now gone, and the factory door was coming to be something of a permanent barrier in our society. Working people had followed the factories to town, and were living as their means permitted in the cheap quarters of cities that had not yet faced the fact of congested population. City life underwent a great change, with graft and selfishness nearly always a neck ahead of genuine reform.

The history of the American labor movement becomes a matter of interest for the first time during our period. The essential thing that marks the difference between a society in which everyone works without being in a class, and one in which organized classes are struggling for opportunity and advantage, is the *ease of outlet*, the ease with which a young man may change his occupation, and advance in standing and comfort as he goes on in life. Because of the American free lands, and what they implied, the great industrial revolution of the last century came to Europe from thirty to fifty years earlier than to the United States. In Europe classes were already stratified, as they had been since the Middle Ages, when the industrial revolution came. And the revolution only made the lines higher and harder to cross. But here there had been a notable absence of caste until almost the end of the last century; and industry had advanced slowly, with high wages, because of the reluctance of Americans to surrender their economic freedom unless the rewards were visible and high.

We notice clearly, in the first half of our period, between the panic of 1873 and that of 1893, that manufacturing is progressing very rapidly; that workmen are finding it hard to change their jobs; that labor is organizing; and that general society is having to adjust itself to the idea of industrial clash and strikes. This is the labor movement. Its

progress from the time of the railroad strikes of 1877 to the creation of the Department of Labor in 1913, is one of our most important subjects.

Closely connected with the labor movement, so closely indeed that they cannot be separated, is the problem of immigration and the immigrant. The great causes of migration from Europe to America have been distress in Europe, and hope of prosperity and independence here. A flood of alien immigration was pouring in upon us through most of our period; and most of the aliens found themselves in a strange land, with a foreign tongue, where public opinion was scornful of the man who could not shift easily for himself. They crowded into the cities, for here were the factories and the jobs. Here they built up the great foreign sections; and here the various political and social parasites found them and exploited them. American labor resented their arrival, for they meant more competition for jobs, and perhaps lower wages. In the schools, before the courts, at home and church, the clash between the ancient civilizations that they brought and the up-and-coming Americanization that they found offers material for a story which has as yet not found its historian.

Here it is that Jane Addams comes into the story, representing a new spirit of responsibility in American life. Jacob Riis, a Scandinavian immigrant, revealed much of the problem of the workingman with little chance in his "How the other half lives." Jane Addams, with a group of young college people, opened a residence in the slums of Chicago, to try there the experiment that had been attempted under similar conditions by Oxford students in the London slums. The college settlement movement was an effort to help, by living next them, those people for whom the United States was ceasing to be a land of easy opportunity. "Twenty years at Hull-House" (which is matched for New York by Lillian D. Wald's "The House in Henry Street") is a classic picture of this new side of our life.

It was becoming harder to rise in American life, but it was by no means impossible. Among the stories of success in meeting the difficulties and getting over the barriers are those of Andrew Carnegie and Edward Bok. As unlike as two men well could be, these immigrants were yet alike in rising out of poverty and simplicity to great distinction.

Andrew Carnegie will long be known as the great steel magnate and as a forerunner of scientific philanthropy. His own story of his life is full of amiable vanities but it has the charm of a best-seller. A Scotch immigrant lad, he was thrown among the railroads and mines of Pittsburgh when the industrial changes were increasing the demand for steel and iron. Success seems simple, as he tells the tale; but between the lines we can glimpse much of the shrewdness and self-control that made him master of his fate.

Edward Bok is a different type of man. His success, however, is as typical as Carnegie's in showing that the road to opportunity is yet open. *The Ladies' Home Journal* was his life work; but what

he accomplished in the realm of editing and publishing can be appreciated only as one comes to know the popular magazines as they were forty years ago, and as they now are in most countries outside the United States. His task did not involve any special or exclusive resource, or the exploitation of a limited commodity, or the organization of a trust. He won in a field of keen competition by the sheer merit of what he conceived, arranged, and offered for sale. He saw far into the mind of the average American, but did not exploit its defects as much of the modern press does today. He led it rather by imperceptible grades to better taste and an understanding of better things. His autobiography, like that of Carnegie, had a wide popularity when first published. Both books rank high in the series of human self-revelations that began two centuries ago, for America, with the autobiography of Benjamin Franklin.

WHAT THE WORLD WAR TEACHES

The final section of our study deals with the United States at war. Attention should be directed to two matters in particular; one, the aims that underlay our participation; the other, what the struggle revealed as to our capacity for self-government.

All wars are bad, and probably no war fails to do more damage than it does incidental good; but the world has not yet found a way of avoiding the scourge and devastation of the struggle. It does no good to seek to avoid war by refusing to recognize its existence, for it is one of the most intense and real of all human experiences. But much can be learned to hearten the lover of genuine peace from the study of the aims which take countries into war. Since the close of the World War it has become common to assume that it was all a failure since peace and the millennium did not come at once. There is no such thing as peace, in the sense of absence of conflict or contest. But there is such a thing as reason, and self-control, and high ideal. In Page's "Letters," and in the "Recent History" will be found much to show the idealism of the American side of the World War. It is a gain to the world that the ideal has been expressed even though it is not yet realized.

Quite as important is the evidence found during the war of the capacity of a people to forget rivalries

and internal struggle, and to co-operate for the immediate end in view. The array of war boards created in the United States, and the smooth-working machinery of the selective service draft, and the easy acceptance of the disturbance and sacrifice called for by the Liberty Loan drives all go to show that a capacity for co-operation exists in the United States; and that whenever the genuine desire for improvement appears, the power will exist to carry it to fruition.

THE ZEST FOR MORE

The reader of these books will have a new view of his opportunity as a citizen. He will see that there is no one formula, or platform, or creed that will carry through to all his ends. There is no ultimate or settled result to work or hope for. Life and government are two matters in which change is the order of every day; and every moment is to be judged whether it is a fair or an unfair balance between the ideal and the possible. What one can aim at, and what one should, is to avoid the clumsy errors that have defaced the past, to see the present as a reality, fully and without passion, and to perform the duty of the citizen with understanding and sincerity. These books only open the first approaches to the history of the present, but their reader will go on to others, inspired by a zest for more.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED IN THIS COURSE

- Theodore Roosevelt and His Time*, 2v. Joseph Bucklin Bishop. Scribner, 1920. \$10.00.
Recent History of the United States. Frederic L. Paxson. Houghton, new rev. ed. 1926. \$5.00. Student's ed. \$3.00 (text identical with regular ed.).
The Life and Letters of John Hay, 2v. William Roscoe Thayer. Houghton, 1915. \$7.50.
The Life and Letters of Walter H. Page. Burton J. Hendrick. Doubleday, 1922. 2v. \$10.00, v.3 (supplementary) \$5.00; 1v. ed. (two v. in one) \$5.00; School ed. \$1.00 (adapted for school use by Rollo L. Lyman).
Twenty Years at Hull-House. Jane Addams. Macmillan, 1912. \$2.50.
The Autobiography of Andrew Carnegie. Houghton, 1920. \$5.00. Popular ed. \$1.50 (text identical with regular ed.).
The Americanization of Edward Bok. Scribner, 1923. \$2.50.

Note:—In this, as in other courses in the series, a book by the author of the course is included at the special request of the American Library Association.

Biography: The "Case" Method in History

BY PROFESSOR ROY F. NICHOLS, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

The increasing interest in biography makes timely a consideration of its value as an aid to the teaching of history. The study of biography has many purposes when used in connection with historical study, but this discussion will be confined to its use as a "case" method.

The purpose of a "case" method is the production of a clearer and more accurate understanding of the process of social change and development. Of ne-

cessity, many of the courses in American history, or in the history of any people, given to undergraduates are survey courses in which a wide range is covered in a short period of time. This has meant a vast amount of generalization, glittering and otherwise. Much is said about forces: the blind forces of environment, the relentlessness of economic determinism; these are dwelt upon because in the short space of time allowed they are the easiest explanations and

perhaps the most fundamental. These tendencies are not to be condemned. Survey courses are valuable and indispensable as introductions; the historical forces are present and potent, but so often a student loses sight of the processes, forgets the individual and his place in social change. History, to be sure, has to do with groups, but these groups are composed of individuals in spite of the fact that as such they are generally lost sight of in the multitude. Historical forces must work upon persons and through human beings.

It would seem, therefore, that if many of the phases of our national life were taken up by particular rather than general approaches, the process of history might be clearer. For example, the problem of the development of our nationalism. We have been so many things—colonies of a great empire, independent states, a loose federation without adequate central government, a federation with a central government about the functions of which there was long dispute, two groups in one, with the possibility of two nationalities, a military state with a group of conquered provinces, a centralized industrial state with an agricultural minority occasionally asserting itself—in such a variety of relationships what has been the history of the growth of a national spirit? The answer to that question can only be found in the thoughts of individuals on the subject as revealed in their various recorded expressions and actions. The history of the great migrations to and across this continent can most graphically and clearly be presented by studying the careers of individuals, likewise the story of the frontier. Then there is the problem which intrigues many; namely, why did a people with so much in common go to war? It is, of course, easy to use certain well-known clichés, such as slavery, State rights, economic incompatibility, but these words to many a student are imitated expressions rather than vehicles of thought. We need more probing into the minds, thoughts and expressions of individuals, no matter how unimportant. In fine, history, like law and economics, can well profit by using the "case" method, and one form of the "case" method in history is the study of biography.

The use of the "case" method calls for a presentation of the story of the development of American society in terms of the activities of individuals. A scheme of organization forms the outline of the course; this scheme divides the material presented into various social movements. For example, the colonial period is discussed under the following heads: "Migrations from Europe," "Organization of Community Life," "Colonial Enterprise and Expansion," the "Struggle for Self-Determination." Under each of these topics representative men and women are selected, the list varying from year to year; the nature of their social environment is first considered and, where possible, their heredity, in order to look for the motives for their activity; then the story of their enterprise and the features of it that make them representative of the particular social development under discussion. In addition to the personalities discussed

in lectures, assignments are made of the life-stories of others, and these readings form the basis of the work of the discussion hours in which the group as a whole participates. Often the traditional figures are not stressed as much as some more obscure individuals about whom sufficient data may be available. The material for this sort of work is abundant. For not only are there the formal biographies themselves, but there are numerous volumes of recollections and reminiscences, many of which do not appear in the bibliographies and in addition, there are mines, almost unworked, of these "cases," in the files of the numerous State and local historical journals, which are doing valuable service in collecting materials. Here, however, one of the greatest disadvantages attending biographical study in American history becomes apparent; namely, the unsatisfactory nature of our biographical literature. We possess few notable biographies; the really revealing life stories of even the greatest of our figures can be numbered upon one's ten fingers. The great Washington, after one hundred and fifty years, lacks an adequate biographer; but the signs of the times point to an ever-increasing quantity of better work and many are looking to the proposed American Dictionary of National Biography as a great and most valuable contribution and guide. There is need of a "case" book. The present source books supply some data that is usable, but not nearly enough. A number of interpretative sketches illustrating this method or else a numerous group of selections from biographies and like material judiciously and coherently selected would be a great aid in this matter and a biographical bibliography would be especially welcome.

This method offers an excellent opportunity for original work on the part of the students in actually writing history. With the steady broadening of our conceptions of history more and more need is found for data on migrations, changes of occupation, new industrial enterprises, shifts of capital, changes of political faith, shifting opinion in various localities, changes of habits and ways of life—all of these are phases of our national history about which many general observations have been made by writers, but which historians are either failing to investigate or labelling sociology and leaving to our brethren in that field. It may be predicted that if there is not soon an alliance and co-operative understanding between historians and sociologists the historians will wake up some fine morning to find much of their most valuable territory appropriated by the newcomers.

Many students, in fact most, can supply such data from their own family histories. This is especially true in the West. Recently an experiment was tried in the summer session of the University of Washington, in a course which covered the period from 1789-1846. To this group of students a questionnaire was submitted, which was designed to find out as many details of Western migration as possible, and consisted of the following questions:

1. Reasons for coming.
2. Starting point and proposed destination.

3. Amount of capital.
4. Property carried.
5. Route taken.
6. Size of the party.
7. Method of travel.
8. Allotment of duties along the way.
9. Adventures and mishaps.
10. End of the journey.
11. Manner of acquiring a home.
12. Price paid.
13. Building erected—plans—pictures.
14. Details of pioneer life—local customs—occupation.
15. Amusements.
16. Participation in public life.
17. Relations with Indians.
18. Subsequent moves.

Most of these were answered in narrative form. Several were illustrated with drawings and plans. Nearly all had items of real interest. The reader learned of people traveling East in search of gold, from Australia to California in 1849, of leaving West Virginia for Iowa to escape the Indians, of that little studied movement, the return East of disillusioned pioneers, of odd local customs, recipes for pioneer food, and all told a number of intimate and revealing pictures of life among a roving pioneer people which seemed to thrill even those who had to do this "required work." Of course, such a small and miscellaneous amount of data as contained in forty papers did not set the world on fire, but as Bancroft and

some of the Western historical societies have discovered, a great deal may be preserved if the collecting effort is sustained. In the East especially, it would unearth much interesting data in regard to foreign migration. This type of work can be carried on in any college community and range over a numerous group of subjects and would set on foot not only an inquiry for data in the way of actual reminiscences, but would be sure in some instances at least to lead to the use and preservation of old letters and papers which would have definite value as sources for social history.

Work of this character would have to be consistently carried on from year to year before anything but a most miscellaneous and unclassifiable mass of data could be accumulated. Also conceivably some of the data might be unreliable and in some cases manufactured out of whole cloth—for undergraduates are undergraduates. Still it may be hazarded that such data, in spite of its difficulties, will provide inspiration not hitherto enjoyed, and the suggestions which have been made by Turner and others begin to bear fruit more abundantly. Its chief value seems to be that it makes for interest and accuracy, qualities which are most necessary, and it stimulates insight and analysis into human activity which brings a better understanding of the social environment. It demonstrates clearly what is so often vague in the student's mind; namely, the mechanics of social processes, how things happen, and expresses that "how" in the student's own terms, in the lives of individuals.

The "Rule of Law" under the Lincoln Administration

BY JAMES G. RANDALL, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

I

In this paper¹ we raise the question as to how far the rule of law prevailed under Lincoln's presidency. Professor Dicey, in his *Law of the Constitution*,² has shown us that the principle of the "rule of law" is an ancient one in England, going back to the old yearbooks, and he has given it a definite content. In England, he says, it means that no man can be made to suffer punishment or pay damages for any conduct not definitely forbidden by law; that every man's legal rights or liabilities are almost invariably determined by the ordinary courts; that executive officers have a more limited discretion and less arbitrary power than in continental countries, and that no man is above the law, but all are amenable to the jurisdiction of the ordinary tribunals, officers being personally liable for wrongs done, even though in an official capacity. He adds that personal rights in England do not derive from a constitution, but inherently exist.

American political philosophy is in accord with this principle. Our ideal, it has been said, is a

"government of laws, not of men." Law is above government: government is under law. Martial law, while sometimes used in this country, occupies no recognized niche in our constitutional structure. We think of it as the setting aside of law, not as its fulfillment. The military power we believe to be subordinate to the civil; and even for grave disturbances, as at the time of the Whiskey insurrection, we have preferred to rely upon civil procedure.³ There is in this country a deplorable disregard for law, as it restrains individuals; but this is entirely consistent with that other disposition to subject our rulers to legal restraints. Our respect for the Supreme Court is typical of our attitude in this matter.

Nor is it conformable to American political philosophy to hold that during war legal restraints are to be ignored. Even in war, the military authority should be restrained by treaty obligations, by the laws of civilized warfare, and by a due regard for civil rights, both in conquered territory and at home. War is not anarchy; and, though the maxim has a kernel of truth, it is not sufficient to say that "ne-

cessity knows no law."⁴ It is rather the American view that even in war the laws hold. One of the great doctrines of the Milligan case is that the Constitution is not suspended during war.

II

This conception of a "reign of law" is, of course, but an ideal. We believe that the settled, permanent will of the whole community, as expressed in fundamental law, is a great stabilizing force; and in the ordering of our political life we believe that every effort should be made to give superior force to our mature, sober judgment as against the designs of our rulers. The ideal is never realized. In a sense it is always true that we live under a government of men. But during the Civil War there were particular factors which made for an extreme, irregular, and extra-legal use of governmental power. We may now examine some of these factors.

There was the legal confusion as to what the war was, whether it was a domestic uprising of insurgents, or a war in the international sense.⁵ Was the conflict something like a magnified Whiskey Insurrection, or was it a contest between governments possessing belligerent powers? According to the Supreme Court, it was both.⁶ It was a war, and also a rebellion. The United States had, in seceded territory, both belligerent and municipal powers. As to the attitude of the Lincoln administration on this matter, it should be remembered that, while it held to the insurrectionary theory of the war as a theory, yet in practice it treated the Confederacy as a government with belligerent powers, not as an organization of irresponsible insurgents or pirates. The Supreme Court did not hold that the Confederate States had no rights whatever. The court held that the Southern governments, State and Confederate, were null in the sense that they could enforce no right as against the United States; but it also held that belligerent powers were "conceded" to the Confederacy,⁷ and that as to civil and local matters obedience on the part of the Southern people to the authority of the Confederate government, and that of individual states within the Confederacy, was both a necessity and a duty. Our Supreme Court even declared a contract for the payment of Confederate money, enforceable in the courts of the United States.⁸ During the war, however, the legal confusion as to the relation of the seceded states to the Union made for irregularity and for a sweeping use of Federal power.

The alarming amount of anti-war activity in the North offered a temptation to arbitrary rule.⁹ The schemes of spies, the conspiracies of the Knights of the Golden Circle, the enemy sympathies of "copperheads," constituted a serious menace and increased Lincoln's difficulty in the double task of promoting the success of the government in a desperate war and at the same time preserving civil liberty.

Another factor working against the strictest reign of law was Lincoln's wide assumption of power. Lincoln's legal interpretation rested upon motives rather than upon abstract logic. He had certain

purposes to accomplish, and the legal instruments were chosen to fit the purpose. In this Lincoln was not peculiar. Throughout our history it is necessary to look through the legal arguments of our leaders to the broad social purposes they have sought to attain. Constitutional history, in its ultimate significance, thus becomes social history. Lincoln believed that rights of war were vested in the President, and that as President he had extraordinary legal resources which Congress lacked. In vetoing the Wade-Davis bill in 1864, Lincoln questioned the constitutional competency of Congress to abolish slavery in the states, though his own emancipation proclamation had been in force for a year and a half.¹⁰ Lincoln voiced his broad, free interpretation when he said: "As Commander-in-Chief, I suppose that I have a right to take any measure which may best subdue the enemy."¹¹

The war began with what has been termed a "presidential dictatorship." As to executive measures taken between April and July, 1861, during the recess of Congress, such a thing as the call for militia was not to be questioned if the war was an insurrection; but certainly the enlargement of the army and navy beyond the limits fixed by existing law was most unusual, and Lincoln himself frankly admitted that in this he had overstepped his authority.¹² It was during this period that the first suspension of the habeas corpus privilege came.¹³ The alleged unconstitutionality of this and other conduct of President Lincoln was urged to show that the whole process by which the war began was illegal. The Supreme Court, it is true, upheld the President and the legality of the war in the *Prize Cases*—indeed it could hardly have done otherwise with so vital a political question—but four dissenting judges held that the President's action alone was not sufficient to institute a legal state of war.¹⁴

This question of the dictatorship should not be passed over lightly; and some of Lincoln's arguments in his own defense, forceful and patriotic as they were, may have gone beyond the limits which sound political science would recognize. Lincoln's defense was two-fold: first, that the national safety imperatively demanded that these vigorous measures be taken; and second (and here is the doubtful part), that as he had not exceeded the power of Congress, he supposed all would be made right by subsequent legislative approval. It argues a curious commingling of legislative and executive functions for a President to perform an act which he adjudges to be within the competence of Congress and then, when the measure has been irrevocably taken, to present Congress with an accomplished fact for its subsequent sanction. Lincoln himself said, concerning certain measures taken early in the war: "These measures, whether strictly legal or not, were ventured upon under what appeared to be a popular demand and a public necessity....trusting that Congress would readily ratify them. It is believed that nothing has been done beyond the constitutional competency of Congress."¹⁵

This savored of forcing the hand of Congress. There is the well-known principle that a legislature may not delegate legislative powers even retroactively; and the possession of a constitutional power by Congress implies the right to withhold as well as the right to use it. This much of legislative discretion is denied when Congress is confronted with a *fait accompli* for subsequent approval. The fact that Abraham Lincoln could adopt this irregular course in such a way as to avoid offense, does not argue that this sort of executive conduct is essentially sound. Probably no President has carried the power of presidential proclamation and of executive order so far as Lincoln.¹⁶ It would not be easy to state what Lincoln conceived to be the limit of his powers.¹⁷ Besides exercising extraordinary executive authority, he took over legislative and judicial functions. We have seen how he performed acts which he recognized as belonging to Congress, in anticipation of subsequent ratification. Another instance of presidential legislation¹⁸ is seen in connection with the Militia Act of 1862.¹⁹ That act did not specifically authorize conscription, and the various drafts of 1862 were made in pursuance of executive orders.²⁰ The first national use of conscription by the United States was thus a case of presidential conscription. As to the President's performance of judicial functions, wherever martial law was declared, wherever Southern territory was brought under Union control, wherever military justice was enforced, wherever quasi-judicial powers were exercised by executive departments, presidential justice was illustrated; and besides, there were various "special war courts" created by President Lincoln with sweeping powers, as, for instance, the "provisional court of Louisiana."²¹

III

In all this wide extension of governmental power, there was a noticeable lack of legal precision. A tendency toward irregularity may be observed as a characteristic of the period, in military and civil administration, in legislation, and in legal interpretation. The generals frequently exceeded their military authority, as when Sherman, with the best of motives, included the whole subject of political reconstruction in the terms of surrender presented to Johnston.

This irregularity manifested itself in State and Federal relations. State governors performed Federal functions such as raising United States volunteer regiments; purchasing arms here and abroad; chartering steamers and railroads for the transportation of troops; and even maintaining Federal troops in the field. Andrew at Boston, or Morton at Indianapolis²² were war ministers as truly as was Cameron at Washington; and this elaborate State activity produced much legal confusion.²³

Such was the laxness of Congress that it passed, for instance, a confiscation law which presumably provided for freeing the slaves of so-called "rebel" owners; but the law specified no method by which any

slave could make good that "freedom."²⁴ The slaves were not confiscated; for if free they were not "property," and the provision that confiscated property was to be sold would, of course, be inapplicable to emancipated negroes. The act did not say that the slaves were to be confiscated. It merely declared them free, saying nothing as to how that freedom should be made legally effective. The emancipating feature of the second confiscation act was not enforced.²⁵ It is mentioned as an example of the unscientific legislation which was so characteristic of the period.

This looseness led to some curious legal anomalies. The Southern States were taxed as if part of the United States;²⁶ yet the property out of which such tax must be paid was declared confiscable on the ground that its owners were enemies. Contrary to the prevailing view, the South actually bore the full burden of the direct tax of 1861, either directly or through forfeitures for its non-payment.²⁷ As another legal anomaly, we may notice that in the ratification of the thirteenth amendment in 1865 the action of eight States of the former Confederacy was counted;²⁸ but these same States were promptly treated by Congress as outside the Union. The Unionist government in Virginia was considered a competent State government when it was a matter of consenting to the division of the State; but later this same government was denied representation in Congress²⁹ on the ground that "rebel" control of the State prevented free elections. If elections in Virginia were not to be recognized, then the process of creating West Virginia was unconstitutional.

Many other examples could be mentioned. On the whole it appears that legal interpretation in the 'sixties lacked precision and consistency. Much of the constitutional reasoning of that time was what Professor Robinson has called mere "rationalizing"—"finding reasons for going on believing as we already do."³⁰

IV

Let us now inquire how far the usual checks operated to prevent an extreme use of power. We may first examine briefly the action of Congress in this respect and then that of the courts. Congress specifically approved the President's course between April and July, 1861;³¹ and, as to the habeas corpus question, after two years' delay, Congress passed an ambiguous law which might equally well have been interpreted as sanctioning or as disapproving the doctrine that the President has the suspending power.³² The net effect, however, was to support the President; and immunity from prosecution was granted to officers who committed wrongs during the suspension.³³

It is true that the Habeas Corpus Act of 1863 directed the release of prisoners unless indicted in the courts. This was equivalent to saying that the President's suspension of the privilege, which was authorized by this act, was to be effective in any judicial district only until a grand jury should meet.

On paper this law radically altered the whole system regarding political prisoners, making arbitrary imprisonment illegal after grand juries had examined the prisoners' cases. The significant fact, however, is that this law, like so much of the legislation of the period, was ineffective. Many arrests were made after the act was passed; and a search of the Federal court records reveals that the provisions as to the furnishing of lists to the courts, and the judicial release of prisoners not indicted, were not carried out.³⁴ Congress, while passing extreme measures itself, offered no real obstacle to the use of extraordinary powers by the executive.

How did the courts deal with these matters? There were limiting factors which controlled the judicial department. Courts are not supposed to decide political questions; and it should not be forgotten that even judges are affected by the "war mind." The courts did little in dealing with disloyal practices. The President, through the Attorney-General and the district attorneys, controlled the prosecutions; and where it appeared that treason indictments were being pushed toward conviction, the administration showed actual embarrassment at the government's success.³⁵ Its way of dealing with dangerous citizens was not by prosecution in the courts, but by arbitrary imprisonment and equally arbitrary release.³⁶ There is a striking contrast between the great number of arbitrary arrests and the negligible amount of completed judicial action for such matters as treason, conspiracy, and obstructing the draft.

Whether the courts could have dealt with the emergency is another matter; but the insufficiency of judicial process was often mentioned as justifying an extraordinary extension of military power. A court cannot call out a posse comitatus as large as an army.³⁷ Suppression of insurrection is an executive, not a judicial function.

The Supreme Court of the United States did not, during the war, exert any serious check upon either Congress or the President. In the *Prize Cases*, the court approved Lincoln's acts in the early months of the war. Such an extreme measure as confiscation was upheld by the court.³⁸ It was not the Supreme Court, but Chief Justice Taney, hearing the Merryman petition in chambers, who denounced the President's suspension of the habeas corpus privilege.³⁹ In an unpublished and confidential memorandum to Stanton, Attorney-General Bates expressed the fear that, if the legality of the President's suspension were brought up in a test case, the Supreme Court would declare against the power assumed by the President; but the issue was never forced.⁴⁰ The *Bollman* and *Swartwout* case, an early case sometimes cited in this connection, is one in which the President's suspension did not come up.⁴¹ After the war, it is true, the court, in the *Milligan* case,⁴² declared a military régime illegal in regions remote from the theater of war; but while the war was in progress the court had declined to interfere with the action of a military commission in a similar case, that of *Vallandigham*.⁴³ On the whole, it appears that, while extreme meas-

ures were being taken, neither Congress nor the courts exerted any effective restraint. Instead of the "rule of law" prevailing, as Professor Dicey defined it, men were imprisoned outside the law, and independently of the courts; and governmental officers were given a privileged place above the law and made immune from penalties for wrongs committed.

V

There is, however, another side to the picture; and we must now notice certain factors which at least partly redeemed the situation. The greatest factor, perhaps, was the legal-mindedness of the American people; and a very powerful factor was Lincoln himself. His humane sympathy, his humor, his lawyer-like caution, his common sense, his fairness toward opponents, his dislike of arbitrary rule, his willingness to take the people into his confidence and to set forth patiently the reasons for unusual acts—all these elements of his character operated to modify and soften the acts of overzealous subordinates and to lessen the effects of harsh measures upon individuals.

Everywhere during the war one finds this tempering of severe rules. Deserters were somehow saved from death; escape from penalties was made possible by taking the oath of allegiance; ignorance of the law was often accepted as an excuse; and even spies were released on the acceptance of stipulated terms. Freedom of speech was preserved to the point of permitting the most disloyal utterances, the case of *Vallandigham* being quite exceptional in this respect; and that was but a partial exception, for later in the war, after the anti-climax of *Vallandigham's* carefully staged return from Canada, he was left unmolested, though delivering violent speeches. There was no Espionage Act or Sedition Law; and the most abusive statements were, throughout the war, continually uttered and published. As to the relation of the government to the press, while a book could be written on the suppression of certain newspapers, the military control of the telegraph, the seizure of particular editions, the withholding of papers from the mails, and the arbitrary arrest of offending editors; yet it would be easy to exaggerate the effect of such measures. The enumeration of particular instances of newspaper suppression, or rather suspension, creates a distorted impression. In general, the press was unhampered. There was no real censorship. Newspaper correspondents were privileged characters, dining at officers' mess, using army horses and wagons, passing freely through the armies on government passes, and even at times conveying confidential dispatches. The papers were continually revealing military secrets, abusing such generals as Grant and Sherman, playing up inferior men, creating a public clamor which led to ill-advised engagements, and functioning, to use Sherman's words, as "Confederate spies in the Union camp." The fact that the papers were permitted to do all this, and that powerful opposition papers were left unmolested, though breaking down public confidence in the gov-

ernment, is more worthy of comment than individual instances of suspension. As to Lincoln's attitude on this matter, it should be remembered that in the case of the *Chicago Times*, the suspension order was issued without his knowledge, against his judgment; and was promptly revoked.⁴⁴

Though there were arbitrary arrests under Lincoln, there was no thoroughgoing arbitrary government. Suspension of the habeas corpus privilege does not automatically institute martial law. What the suspension implies is that political prisoners are summarily arrested, held till the emergency passes, and released, after which they may or may not be tried in the civil courts. Martial law, on the other hand, allows a military trial and permits the execution of sentences for which the civil law offers no basis. It is true that the mere detention of the prisoner amounted to a punishment; but this is milder than the rapid completion of all the steps of a summary process, including the execution of the sentence. The suspension was, indeed, a serious matter; but men were simply arrested on suspicion, detained for a while, and then released. The whole effect of their treatment was more lenient than if they had been punished through the ordinary processes of justice.⁴⁵ There was no Revolutionary Tribunal to feed an American guillotine, nothing similar to the "Star Chamber" of the Tudor period in England. To suppose that the suspension of the habeas corpus privilege set aside all law would be a mistake. Even where martial law was declared over limited areas the ordinary courts were permitted to function.⁴⁶

As to the military trial of civilians, it should be noticed that the typical use of the military commission was legitimate; for these commissions were commonly used to try citizens in military areas for military crimes. Where civilians in proximity to the Union army were engaged in sniping or bushwhacking, in bridge-burning or the destruction of railroad and telegraph lines, they were tried, as they should have been, by military commission; and this has occasioned little comment, though there were hundreds of cases.⁴⁷ The prominence of the cases of Vallandigham and Milligan should not obscure the larger fact that these cases were exceptional—in other words, the military trial of citizens for non-military offenses in peaceful areas was far from typical. It was thus a rare use of the military commission that was declared illegal by the Supreme Court in the Milligan case.

It has not been possible in this paper to do more than sketch the outlines of a large subject. Elsewhere the author has attempted to work out the details.⁴⁸ In conclusion, we may notice that legally the Civil War stands out as an eccentric period, a time when constitutional and legal restraints did not fully operate and when the "rule of law" largely broke down. It was a period when opposite and conflicting situations co-existed, when specious arguments and legal fictions were adopted to excuse extraordinary measures. It was a period during which the line was blurred between executive, legislative,

and judicial functions; between State and Federal powers, and between military and civil procedures. International law, as well as constitutional interpretation, was stretched. The powers grasped by Lincoln caused him to be referred to as a "dictator." Yet civil liberties were not annihilated and no thoroughgoing dictatorship was established. The traditional attachment of the American people to the "rule of law" as a principle had its steady effect; and, since the personal element in government was then of such unusual importance, it was fortunate that we had in the presidency such a personality as that of Lincoln. There was nothing like a Napoleonic *coup d'état*. No undue advantage was taken of the emergency to force arbitrary rule upon the country or to promote personal ends. The government did not, as in some dictatorships, employ criminal violence to destroy its opponents and perpetuate its power. It is significant that Lincoln half expected to be defeated in 1864. The people were free to defeat him, if they chose, at the polls. The Constitution, while stretched, was not subverted.⁴⁹ In a legal study of the war the two most significant facts are perhaps these: the wide extent of the war powers; and, in contrast to that, the manner in which the men in authority were controlled by the American people's sense of constitutional government. The measures taken were recognized by the people as exceptional; and they were no more exceptional than the emergency for which they were used. Looking beyond the period of confusion, which is called "reconstruction," the net effect, as Lincoln said, was not to give the nation a taste for extreme rule any more than a patient, because of the use of emetics during illness, acquires a taste for them in normal life.⁵⁰ To use another of Lincoln's similes, the unusual legal processes were like the surgeon's knife, for it was a time of cutting in order to save.⁵¹

NOTES

¹ This paper was read at the meeting of the American Historical Association at Ann Arbor, Mich., December 29, 1925.

² Albert Venn Dicey, *Introduction to the Law of the [English] Constitution*, ch. IV.

³ On martial law in the United States, see: *The Military Laws of the United States* (4th ed., Wash., Gov't Ptg. Office, 1911); W. E. Birkhimer, *Military Government and Martial Law*; J. I. C. Hare, *American Constitutional Law*, chs. 42, 43, 44; H. W. Ballantine, in *Yale Law Rev.*, XXIV, 189, and *Columbia Law Rev.*, XII, 529; *In re Moyer*, 85 Pac. 190; *Ex parte Milligan*, 71 U. S. 2; *Dynes vs. Hoover*, 20 Howard, 65.

⁴ In American legal thinking, the maxim "Necessity knows no law" appears as a half-truth rather than as a fundamental principle. Too often the maxim is a mere excuse for an unwarranted use of military power.

⁵ An insurrection is an organized, armed uprising which threatens governmental stability. An "insurgent" has been defined as "one who in combination with others takes part in active and forcible opposition to the constituted authorities, where there has been no recognition of belligerency." The term "insurrection" would be appropriate for a movement directed against the enforcement of particular laws; while in a "rebellion" an attempt is made to overthrow the government itself, at least in a part of the country. "War" is a conflict between recognized belligerents. It has been

defined as "that state in which a nation prosecutes its right by force." War is not, legally, a coercion of individuals, but a condition in which individuals are relieved from responsibility for acts otherwise criminal. A nation does not claim municipal powers over its enemies in a public war; but it does assert that claim in the case of an insurrection or rebellion. *U. S. vs. Fries*, Fed. Cas. No. 5126; Prize cases, 67 U. S. 635; *U. S. vs. Smith*, Fed. Cas. 16318; *U. S. vs. 100 Barrels of Cement*, *Ibid.*, 15945.

⁶ From the standpoint of the government at Washington, the Civil War began as an "insurrection," though the term "rebellion" was also used with little attempt to maintain an accurate distinction between these two terms. The execution of the laws, as Lincoln proclaimed, was "obstructed by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings." But in the Prize Cases the Supreme Court held that the conflict was both a war and an insurrection (67 U. S. 670); and in *Miller vs. United States* the Court declared that "the United States sustained the double character of a belligerent and a sovereign, and had the rights of both." 78 U. S. 306-307. The existence side by side of two opposing legal principles is understandable if we remember that the insurrectionary theory was not in fact applied as against Southern leaders and adherents of the Confederacy. They were not held personally liable as insurrectionists, as were the leaders of the Whiskey Insurrection. Certain phases of the legal nature of the Civil War have been dealt with by the writer in the *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, XVIII, 79-96.

⁷ *Ford vs. Surget*, 97 U. S. 605; *Fifield vs. Ins. Co.*, of Pa., 47 Pa. 166, cited in 97 U. S. 620.

⁸ *Thorington vs. Smith*, 8 Wall. 1.

⁹ On disloyalty in the North, see: Nicolay and Hay, *Abraham Lincoln: A History*, VIII, ch. 1; *Rep. of Judge Ad. Gen. on the Order of American Knights* (Wash., 1864); W. D. Foulke, *Life of O. P. Morton*; *War of the Rebellion: Official Records of the Armies* (hereafter cited as *O. R.*), ser. II, vol. 2, pp. 240 ff.; vol. 7, pp. 740 ff.; Rhodes, *Hist. of U. S.*, V, 317 ff.

¹⁰ As this was a "pocket veto" Lincoln stated his objections in a public pronouncement, not in a regular veto message. Nicolay and Hay, *Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln*, X, 153. In conversation with Senator Browning of Ill., Lincoln expressed his conviction that Congress had no power over slavery in the States. *MS. Diary of Orville H. Browning*, July 1, 1862.

¹¹ Nicolay and Hay, *Works*, VIII, 32.

¹² On May 4, 1861, the President enlarged the army of the United States by his call for volunteers, an act which is to be distinguished from the earlier call, on April 15, for 75,000 militia. The May call was of the sort which usually follows congressional action authorizing an increase of the army. For Lincoln's comment, admitting lack of authority on this point, see Nicolay and Hay, *Works*, VI, 308.

¹³ On the following dates Lincoln issued orders for the suspension of the habeas corpus privilege: April 27, 1861; May 10, 1861; July 2, 1861; October 14, 1861; December 2, 1861; September 24, 1862. Richardson, *Messages and Papers of the Presidents*, VI, 18, 17, 19, 39, 98-99.

¹⁴ 67 U. S. 635.

¹⁵ Richardson, *Messages*, VI, 24.

¹⁶ Though President Wilson exercised far-reaching powers, these powers were mainly derived from statutes passed by Congress. C. A. Berdahl, *War Powers of the Executive in the United States* (Univ. of Ill., Studies in the Social Sciences, vol. IX), p. 268.

¹⁷ In giving orders for the expenditure of money from the treasury of the United States without legal appropriation, Lincoln, while acting honestly, admitted that he acted without legal authority. Message to Congress, May 26, 1862, Nicolay and Hay, *Works*, VII, 189-194.

¹⁸ Much of what might be called presidential legislation consists of executive regulations or orders applying laws to given situations. Charles E. Hughes pointed out in 1917 that the war power of the President is greatly augmented outside his functions as Commander-in-Chief through legislation of Congress increasing his administrative authority.

Charles E. Hughes, *War Powers under the Constitution* (Sen. Doc. No. 105, 65 Cong., 1 sess.), p. 9.

¹⁹ *Statutes at Large*, XII, 597.

²⁰ General Orders, War Dept., Nos. 94, 99, Aug. 4 and Aug. 9, 1862. *O. R.*, ser. III, vol. II, pp. 291, 333-335.

²¹ Judge Charles A. Peabody, "United States Provisional Court for...Louisiana, 1862-1865," *Amer. Hist. Ass. Ann. Rep.*, 1892, pp. 199-210; *Appleton's Ann. Cyc.*, 1864, 480 ff.

²² W. H. H. Terrell, *Rep. of the Adj. Gen. of Ind.*, vol. I, *passim*; W. D. Foulke, *Life of O. P. Morton*; H. G. Pearson, *Life of John A. Andrew*.

²³ State action in the raising of United States Volunteer regiments was of great importance. See on this subject Fred A. Shannon, "State Rights and the Union Army," *Miss. Vall. Hist. Rev.*, June, 1925. Morton insisted on furnishing six regiments of Federal troops in 1861, though the call was for four. Foulke, *Morton*, I, 128. Cameron accepted only three of the ten regiments offered by Ohio, and a similar situation existed with regard to Massachusetts and other states. Pearson, *Andrew*, I, 224, 225. In the summer of 1862, Senator Browning of Illinois, after visiting the encampment of Federal volunteers from Rhode Island, which was located at Washington, wrote: "...the whole [is] apparently under the direction of Governor Sprague of Rhode Island who is in camp." *MS. Diary of Orville H. Browning*, July 12, 1861. The Morton Papers in the State Library at Indianapolis reveal many interesting details concerning the activities of R. D. Owen who acted as "State Agent for Indiana" in procuring arms and military equipment, making war contracts (for which in the long run Federal money was used), and in general performing the sort of functions that would normally come within the province of the War Department.

²⁴ *St. at L.*, XII, 589 (sec. 9).

²⁵ Lincoln said concerning the second Confiscation Act: "I cannot learn that this law has caused a single slave to come over to us." Sep. 13, 1862. Nicolay and Hay, *Works*, VIII, 30.

²⁶ *St. at L.*, XII, 294 ff.; 640.

²⁷ Report of Internal Revenue Bureau, in *Congressional Globe*, 42 Cong., 2 sess., 3387; *McKee vs. U. S.*, 164 U. S. 292. By taking the amount of the direct tax of 1861 collected in the South, adding the forfeitures, and making allowance for the considerable undervaluation of millions of property taken over by the government, one reaches the conclusion that the States of the South, so far from being deficient in their "quotas," actually overpaid the tax. In stating to Congress in 1889 that about \$2,300,000 was credited to the "insurrectionary States," President Cleveland obviously did not include the amount of the forfeitures; but he presented sound reasons for disapproving the reimbursement of the States for the amounts collected under this direct tax. Richardson, *Messages*, VIII, 837 ff. In 1891, however, such reimbursement was provided by Congress. *St. at L.*, XXVI, 822.

²⁸ *Constitution of the United States, as amended to January 1, 1923* (Annotated), Sen. Doc. No. 96, 67 Cong., 2 sess., p. 28.

²⁹ In the thirty-eighth Congress Virginia was denied representation in the House of Representatives. *Cong. Globe*, 38 Cong., 1 sess., 2313 ff.; 2321 ff.; 2311, 2323.

³⁰ J. H. Robinson, *Mind in the Making*, 41.

³¹ Act of August 6, 1861, "to increase the Pay of the Privates in the Regular Army...and for other Purposes," sec. 3. *St. at L.*, XII, 326.

³² *St. at L.*, XII, 755; G. C. Sellery, "Lincoln's Suspension of Habeas Corpus as Viewed by Congress," *Bull. of the Univ. of Wis.*, Hist. Ser., Vol. I, No. 3, pp. 213-286.

³³ See the writer's article entitled "The Indemnity Act of 1863: a Study in the Wartime Immunity of Governmental Officers," *Mich. Law Rev.*, XX, 589-613.

³⁴ Space is lacking for the presentation of all the evidence in the writer's notes tending to show the lack of enforcement of the Habeas Corpus Act; but the following statement made by the Clerk of the Federal district court at Indianapolis in 1925 may be quoted: "I have personally gone through all of the order books of both the Circuit

Court of the United States and the District Court of the United States covering the entire period of the Civil War and I am unable to find that there was ever any list of prisoners filed by the Secretary of War or the Secretary of State, and there appears to be no order of Court ordering the release of any citizens held by military authority who were not indicted." Letter of William P. Kapper, Clerk of the District Court of the United States, Indianapolis, to the writer, June 15, 1925.

"Though the penalty for treason was softened by the act of July 17, 1862 (*St. at L.*, XII, 589), yet even this milder penalty was not enforced; and it is a striking fact that no life was forfeited and no sentence of fine and imprisonment carried out in any judicial prosecution for treason in connection with the Civil War. The unfortunate case of Mumford, executed under Butler's jurisdiction at New Orleans in 1862, was a military, not a judicial, case. Nicolay and Hay, *Lincoln*, V, 268, 269, 278. Concerning certain treason and piracy cases that were being prosecuted in the Federal circuit court at Philadelphia in 1861, Justice Grier, of the United States Supreme Court, said: "I do not intend to try any more of these cases....I have other business to attend to, and do not mean to be delayed....from day to day in trying....a few unfortunate men here out of half a million that are in arms against the government." Statement of Justice Grier in U. S. Circuit Court, Philadelphia, November 4, 1861 (Enclosure in letter of J. H. Ashton to Attorney-General Bates, same date), *Attorney General's Papers* (MSS., Library of Congress). Referring to the same situation, Bates said: "...there are....political reasons, very operative on my mind, although prudently not proper for publication just now, which make it desirable to hold these cases up." Bates to Ashton, November 10, 1861, *Ibid.* The purpose of Lincoln's government was not to convict any persons of treason, but to vindicate the laws and

protect the nation against disloyalty. Arrest and detention of suspected persons was the method used; and indictments for treason in the Federal courts, though rather numerous, were regularly "continued" from term to term and ultimately dropped.

"The following bit of correspondence between Lincoln and Stanton throws light on the subject of the release of prisoners. Lincoln wrote to the Secretary of War on August 22, 1864: "I....wish to oblige [H. W.] Beecher by relieving Howard [imprisoned for complicity in the bogus proclamation published in the *New York World* on May 18, 1864] but I wish you to be satisfied....What say you?" Stanton replied, "I have no objection if you think it right and this a proper time"; whereupon Lincoln gave the order: "Let Howard....be discharged." *Stanton Papers* (MSS., Lib. of Cong.), XXII, No. 54446.

"When a Federal marshal in Kansas, in 1859, maintained a large standing posse continuously in the field for a considerable period in order to suppress a band of desperadoes, his action was disapproved at Washington, and it was made clear that no authority existed under which a quasi-military force could be maintained by a judicial officer. *Attorney General's Papers*: March 1, 1861; May 10, 1861; September 10, 1868 (MSS. Lib. of Cong.).

"*Miller vs. U. S.*, 78 U. S. 268.

"*Ex parte Merryman*, Fed. Cas. No. 9487.

"Confidential" letter of Bates to Stanton, January 31, 1863, *Stanton Papers* (MSS., Lib. of Cong.), 52220.

"4 Cranch, 101.

"71 U. S. 2 ff. Concerning the Milligan case, ex-Attorney-General Bates wrote: "If the Supreme Court should decide that military commissions are lawful, I predict that the judges who give opinion that way will go down to posterity with characters as black as that of Lord Chief Justice Saunders, and that their judgment will be more odious to this nation than Saunders' judgment against the chartered rights of the City of London ever was to the English people." *MS. Diary of Edward Bates*, February 16, 1866.

"1 Wall. 243.

"The writer has treated the newspaper in the Civil War in the *American Historical Review*, XXIII, 303-323.

"As to arbitrary arrests, only a few of the sources can be noted here. Arrests conducted under Seward's authority early in the war are treated in Frederic Bancroft, *Life of Seward*, II, ch. 24. J. A. Marshall's *American Bastille* deals chiefly in abuse and adds little to the *Official Records*. One needs to go through the voluminous material in the second series of these *Records* for a comprehensive view of the subject. A table listing briefly the charges against certain prisoners, and thus illustrating the reasons for arrests, is found in ser. II, vol. 2, pp. 277-279.

"*O. R.*, ser. I, vol. 27, pt. 3, pp. 437-438; ser. II, vol. 1, p. 155.

"*Ibid.*, ser. II, vol. 1, pp. 282 ff.

"*Constitutional Problems Under Lincoln* (New York, D. Appleton and Co., 1926).

"Lincoln's reluctance to depart from established American principles; his sympathy for the conscientious objector; his generosity in releasing political prisoners; and his claim to the title of the "Great Conciliator" as denoting his real place in history more truly than that of the "Great Emancipator," were effectively set forth in a paper entitled "Abraham Lincoln and the Tradition of American Civil Liberty," read by Professor Arthur C. Cole before the Illinois State Historical Society, at Springfield, Illinois, May 7, 1926.

"Nicolay and Hay, *Works*, VIII, 309-310.

"Often a limb must be amputated to save a life." *Ibid.*, X, 66.

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The Socialized Recitation in High School History

BY MABEL WILSON, WASHINGTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, DULUTH, MINN.

The socialized recitation is one in which the pupil instead of the teacher assumes leadership. No particular plan of pupil leadership has been outlined—individual teachers evolve their own plans. In any form which the socialized recitation may take, the foundation element is responsibility to the group rather than to the teacher.

The two most common ways of carrying on the socialized recitation are the pupil-teaching method and the general class method. In the pupil-teaching method, one of the pupils conducts the discussion and is responsible for the continuous activity of the class. In the general class method, the pupils give their opinions without any domination of leadership.

By means of the socialized recitation, the schools are attempting to give training in rather than facts about citizenship. In many subjects, the facts are considered less important than the opportunity which the acquisition of the facts furnishes for co-operative group work. Numerous school surveys have recommended socialization of instruction in history and the social sciences. It is in this field that the procedure has met with the greatest degree of success.

THE RELATION TO HISTORY INSTRUCTION

Aims and Functions of History Instruction. History has never been denied a place in the curriculum. But a new function has been assigned to the subject. The aim of history instruction is no longer a mere knowledge of facts. All authorities now recognize the great social value of the subject.

Millis says: "The main reason for teaching history is to reveal the nature of our civilization today as developed out of the past, and to prepare the pupil for intelligent citizenship—the primary function is to socialize the young citizen."¹ The two objectives which this writer assigns to history teaching are (1) to give the student a knowledge of the origin of society which will enable him to understand the present world of human activities; and (2), to cultivate certain attitudes which constitute good citizenship. Among these attitudes are a spirit of co-operation, good-will—the disposition to wish every one well, and a sense of personal obligation to repay society for services received.²

There are some individuals who feel that if the study of history can really be made an educational implement in schools, it will raise up a generation that will not only know how to vote, but will bring prepared, trained judgment to help them in all the affairs of life. Of course, mere knowledge of facts will not do this. History must be made a reality, a study of the actions and motives of real men and women and of real human societies.³

Welton believes the attitudes developed through the study of history are much more important than

the knowledge acquired in the subject. The study of history should, then, serve the practical end of developing both knowledge and judgment in the conduct of social and public life.⁴ This is not an easy task for the history instructor.

History, from the very nature of its content, affords an unusual opportunity for the training of individuals as members of society. The study of great world movements should give an insight into conditions of society at present, and thus help the individual to understand the world in which he lives. Every individual forms a part of the world and is what he is through his relations to the rest of society. If, understanding society, he understands himself more fully, he gains power in directing his own life. In other words, his power of judging wisely in the actual situations of life is trained and at the same time made surer by a clearer understanding of facts on which his judgment is to be exercised.

The courses in senior high school history form the basis of instruction in the more specialized social sciences. Since a majority of the population does not enter college, the aim of the high school should be to prepare students for active social life. This preparation must come chiefly through history and other social sciences.

Importance of Form of Recitation. If social attitudes are to be developed in history classes, the recitation must become more than a mere mechanism for testing the knowledge of pupils. Hence, more attention than formerly is being paid to methods of presenting subject matter. The daily recitation is not a mere means by which history knowledge is built up. If well-planned and well-executed, it becomes a step by which mental processes advance, and serves as a basis for true ideas of relationships, ideals and conduct.

If history teachers are to keep students alert and mentally active, they must constantly strive for variety in class procedure. Interest and enjoyment must be sought as a means not as an end in the teaching of history.

Professor Tryon says the thing to be done determines the form of the recitation. If the teacher plans to have the pupils consume all or nearly all of the time he will use either the individual or the socialized recitation. For regular day-by-day use the socialized form and a combination of the recitation and oral method, with emphasis on the recitation, will produce good results.⁵

Other authorities agree with Professor Tryon. Wesley thinks the interested oral recitation is a valuable method for the secondary school. In high school and college, facts assume more and increasing importance. But these facts must be organized so they may be kept within their proper sphere. To make

them alive, they must be taught with spirit—this is by far the most important element.⁶

According to Professor McMurry, after his examination of the character of work done in the New York City schools, a recitation was good in the degree that it offered the pupils opportunity for motivation, evaluation, initiation and organization. If any given history recitation offered occasion for these four standards, it was an efficient one.⁷ Other writers believe the history recitation must offer opportunity for the student to do concrete and objective thinking, apply historic truths to social situations, interpret history, and use historic judgment.⁸

The character of the work done in any system of schools is determined primarily by the methods employed in the recitation group. If democracy demands citizens with judgment and initiative who can co-operate, and who conceive the highest purpose in life to be service to society, then the methods in the class room must develop such a citizenship. The school and every group in it present social situations as genuine as those of adult life. Some forms of the recitation evidently present more genuine social situations than others.

Aims of the Socialized Recitation. The socialized recitation in history is an attempt, on the part of instructors, to afford a situation where the social attitudes which are the aims of history teaching may be developed. An effort is made to educate the child in a natural manner. Based on the principal that self-activity is a necessary condition for growth, this form of the recitation emphasizes the pupil and uses subject-matter as a means of expressing individual ideas and developing power. Under this method the pupil becomes the important issue. Facts of books are used to create experiences for mental and moral training instead of for information only. The teacher's work becomes a background rather than a working center of the class.

Since the great work of the schools is to train young people for life citizenship in a democracy, that democracy should exist in its purest form in our classes. It has been aptly said on this point that there must be willingness to give as well as receive, to listen as well as speak, to lead as well as follow. This means an association of individuals working together in a democratic way. No stiff, set procedure can be democratic.⁹

The old question and answer method in which there was emphasis on teacher rather than pupil activity is not the best plan to develop the social instinct of the pupil. It is monotonous both for the student and the teacher. Facts must be taught, but if we can "sugar-coat" them and present them in an interesting way, the daily lesson becomes less of a task and more of a pleasure and inspiration.

To summarize, then, the socialized recitation in history is an attempt to direct instruction in the correct channels. The pupils, instead of the teacher, become the working center of the class. A situation is presented where social attitudes may develop. With this end in view, individual teachers have worked out some interesting plans.

SPECIFIC FORMS OF THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

Iowa University High School. In the Iowa University High School, Iowa City, Iowa, Miss Pierce uses a special seating plan in conducting her socialized recitations in history and the social sciences. The class is seated in such a manner that pupils face each other, two rows having backs to the teacher and facing other two rows. This tends to make pupils recite to each other and not to the teacher only. Great care is taken in giving assignments, first, that questions by the teacher, except in settling disputes, may be eliminated, and, second, that it may serve as an outline from which pupils may carry on recitations.¹⁰

The class is directed to ask questions over doubtful points, to demand explanations, to criticize, and to amplify statements. Occasionally, the teacher does not ask questions throughout the hour, but at other times she emphasizes phases of the work. She usually sits at her desk directly back of the class, taking very little part except to call upon pupils for contributions, yet she is a compelling force and guide.

To cultivate healthy rivalry, the class is divided alphabetically into two groups. Each group selects a leader who keeps account of the number of recitations made and the report is posted on Friday, although the grade of the week is determined by the teacher.

Bucyrus, Ohio, High School. The socialized recitation is combined with supervised study in the history classes of the Bucyrus, Ohio, High School. Each student purchases a textbook, which is used chiefly to give continuity, and a notebook which contains his problems, outline maps, and material which he acquires in investigations. The work is based almost entirely upon the history library, which is housed in the history recitation room. Free use is also made of the public library.¹¹

The class period is seventy minutes long and divided into two periods. The first thirty minutes is devoted to discussion, the remaining forty minutes to investigation. As soon as the class assembles, the secretary, a student elected by the class, asks for a volunteer review of topics of the previous day's lesson. This is followed by a review given by a student who has been chosen for the work on the previous day. The review is limited to four minutes. After review, corrections and additions are made by other students, or the secretary may call for further information.

The secretary then turns over the work of the day to the discussion leader, whom he has chosen the previous day. The leader places problems for discussion before the class, asks for contributions, calls on members or asks questions. This part of the work consumes about twenty-five minutes. During the discussion period the instructor does not interfere unless the work gets out of its proper sphere. After discussion is finished, the instructor comments on the discussion for five minutes. These comments consist of explanations or of calling attention to important phases.

A discussion leader is then chosen for the next day, and the leader chooses some one to take the review.

Problems are then given out by the instructor. The problems of each day are mimeographed on one sheet and kept in the student's notebook. Answers to problems are written on the opposite sheet. The assignment marks the close of the discussion period and the beginning of the last phase of class period, the investigation part of the work.

The instructor aids the pupils individually during the investigation period. The class is divided into groups of five each under a leader selected by the instructor. Conferences are not permitted to degenerate into wrangles. The instructor meets group leaders once a week. The investigation period is the keynote of the whole scheme.

The conventional class plan is varied to keep interest from lagging. Contests between groups are frequently given. A recitation is occasionally devoted to debate.

A Boston School. The following is the plan of conducting history and civics classes in a Boston school. A student director is appointed by the teacher each day so that all students have several chances to conduct the recitation. The director merely starts or directs the activities of the class and often takes a less conspicuous part than others of his class. He is not a pupil teacher and is not there to relieve the teacher in any way. Everyone in the class is given a chance to lead before anyone is given a second chance. The leader has many opportunities to develop and exercise good judgment and is held responsible for class procedure. Committees are appointed for special work.¹²

Each question is settled in turn as it is raised, if possible. The director sits at a table in front of the room beside the teacher's desk. Pupils may ask questions for their own information or to test the one reciting. The great purpose of the questioning is to draw all into the discussion, to stimulate thinking, to promote interchange of opinions, and to reach definite conclusions from opinions presented.

When each class assembles, the only remark from the teacher is: "Who will serve today?" Usually every hand in the room is raised. Boys and girls are alternated. If the teacher is out of the room when the class assembles, it is understood that any one may assume leadership. Rarely does the same pupil assume leadership on two successive days. A different secretary is appointed each day by the leader. The records are all kept in one book, which is the teacher's official record book. Every pupil is marked each day by a majority vote of his classmates. They realize a majority vote must agree with the teacher's judgment. Pupils appreciate marks. The majority can be trained to use A sparingly.

Seattle High Schools. History recitations in the Seattle High Schools are socialized whenever the assignment is not given in the form of a problem. The assignment is emphasized so that each student knows exactly what he is to learn.

The assignment is made and the recitation conducted as follows:

The lesson is divided into four or five parts and a

leader assigned to each part. It is the duty of each leader to outline his part of the lesson, prepare questions, and gather information on all questions he has prepared. In the recitation, the leaders question the class as the teacher would. Volunteers are not called upon until two pupils have attempted to answer the question and have failed to satisfy the leader and other members of the class. Any member may ask questions on answers not made clear or ask new questions. Then volunteers present new material based on collateral reading. The leader finally offers his additional information. The teacher then asks questions and emphasizes points not brought out.¹³

The principal point to be noted in the Seattle plan is the absence of teacher domination. Discussions, questions, and criticisms are between pupils, with the teacher only occasionally brought in. The teacher is merely the guide. He encourages freedom and the desire to offer additional facts. Pupils are encouraged to give constructive rather than destructive criticisms. The teacher corrects errors and supplements the work of students only when necessary. He directs the work, counsels with pupils, advises and leads without dominating and suppressing the life of the class.

Wadleigh High School, New York City. An extra period a week is devoted to teaching current events in all American history classes in the Wadleigh High School, New York City. A number were appointed to investigate the methods and recommended that the socialized lesson, having proved a success, was to be used in all current events classes. Four methods are given by Stockton.¹⁴

Under the first method the work is conducted almost wholly by students. During the first session, the class organizes temporarily as a Current Events Club, under the direction of a temporary chairman; a committee consults with the teacher and during the second lesson a report is made and a constitution adopted. The officers, president and secretary, are then elected and make their speeches of acceptance. Each officer serves one month. The constitution provides that there shall be four committees to make reports for the following weeks:

1. Committee on National Affairs.
2. Committee on Foreign Affairs.
3. Committee on State Affairs.
4. Committee on City Affairs.

The chairman sees that all important events of the week are summarized so that a report can be made. Other members must be able to supplement the work of the committee and discuss topics before them.

The second method differs from the first in that the class does not have a written constitution, but, like the English and French governments, enacts legislation which serves as a constitution. The first law organizes a Current Events Club, the second provides for election of officers, the third provides for committees. The officers serve only one week so as to give each student an opportunity to preside and get parliamentary practice. There are still four committees, as in the previous method.

In the third method, the organization is the same, except the officers serve all term. Things run more smoothly with experienced officers. Instead of the assignment being given to a committee, it is given to each row of students which reports on each topic. There are four rows having the names of the committees in the first method.

The fourth method has been formulated by the committee, but not tried. It is a combination of the best from the other three. No formal constitution is adopted, but the procedure of law-making is followed as in the second method. The president serves all term, but selects a different temporary chairman every week, so each member has an opportunity to preside. Once a month, the Club meets as a Committee of the Whole, when two or three important questions before the nation are discussed. The topics to be discussed are assigned to the class in advance. The row system of committees is carried out, and one student in each row is designated to report. A Criticism Committee reports on the use of English, and on information given on the topic.

Estimate of the Plans. Of these five forms of the socialized recitation, some seem practical. Others would seem to be consumers of time. No doubt all are a success under the individual teachers who have reported the plans. But an unskilled teacher might fail in the experiment.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

The many advocates of the socialized recitation claim for it numerous advantages. But even its advocates admit there are some disadvantages. Critics are often severe in their estimates. On the whole, the advantages appear much greater than the disadvantages.

Advantages of the Socialized Recitation. In these school systems where the socialized recitation has been used, the individual instructors are agreed that it possesses definite advantages over the old, formal type of history recitation. The characteristic thing in this procedure is that the teacher leaves the direction of expression to the pupils, who are forced to build up for themselves the completed content of the lesson. It combines individual initiative in thinking with social co-operation, so as to give training in citizenship.¹⁵

Superintendent Frank B Cooper, of the Seattle Schools, from answers to questionnaire pertaining to methods employed by his teachers of history, civics, and economics, stated: "The socialized recitation tends to induce the thinking habit, the weighing of opinions, and a comparison of facts before decisions. It aims to blaze the way to *just* conclusions rather than conclusions, for in many problems, satisfactory conclusions have not been reached."¹⁶

Mackie, of the Seattle Schools, is an enthusiastic advocate of the socialized recitation in history teaching. He believes social consciousness is aroused and the desire to become responsible, to be interested, to put forth effort and to do something for others is

stimulated by this plan. The socialized recitation makes the school room real, life-like and natural. Many students think it does away with monotony. Instead of being required to listen most of the time to the teacher, the student himself becomes the investigator and expresses himself in recitation. He is questioned by the class and made to defend his position. It makes him feel confident and develops leadership. The plan solves the problem of discipline. Disorder is usually the result of idleness and inattention—these do not exist in the socialized recitation.

Mackie finally claims for the plan that:

1. It develops a greater sense of co-operation between teacher and students, and a wider freedom of expression than the ordinary recitation.
2. Responsibility and leadership become pleasures.
3. The spirit of the group is more friendly and earnest.
4. The student is trained how to study, to think, and to express thought.¹⁷

Dowell thinks a number of favorable results have been achieved in the Bucyrus, Ohio, High School:

1. The text was relegated to a minor place in the course and the subject, rather than the text, taught.
2. Student initiative was encouraged and developed.
3. Co-operative activity among pupils has been added to individual initiative, with excellent results.
4. Training in the elementary principles of investigation has supplanted the old "hit-and-miss" plan.
5. Less historical information is taught than under the old method, but history is taught more thoroughly and more purposeful.
6. Students have become vastly more interested in history.¹⁸

Some other advantages of the socialized recitation not enumerated above are:

1. The socialized recitation gives civic training by illustrating the duties of citizenship.
2. Pupils like the socialized recitation; for most pupils the mere reciting of facts is uninteresting. It is a powerful instrument in the teaching of the social sciences.
3. The socialized recitation tends to keep the teacher more alert. Upon him rests the responsibility of seeing that the pupils have correct ideas of relative value of topics studied and discussed, and upon him rests the duty of keeping each day's work in its proper relation to the work of the month and the year.
4. The students become keen in detecting mistakes. In the teacher-centered recitation, a contribution makes no difference so long as it pleases the teacher. An unfulfilled task in a socialized recitation may spoil a class undertaking, but an exaggerated statement or half-thought-out opinion is sure to be challenged and a reason demanded.

Disadvantages of the Socialized Recitation. Charges against extreme socialization have been made with justice by its critics. Some socialized work leads to incessant talking by the pupils, to a disputative attitude, to a tendency to wander from the subject matter, to unnecessary noises, and to a monopoly of the recitation by good pupils. These defects are much more common in the socialized plan where the teacher gives reins entirely into the hands of a leader from the group than in one in which she exercises the func-

HISTORICAL REPRODUCTIONS AT THE SESQUI-CENTENNIAL



These two views are taken in High Street, a group of Revolutionary buildings, all of which stood in High (Market) Street in 1776 or soon thereafter. The reproductions include Franklin's print-shop; the house occupied by Washington while President; the house in which Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence; Stephen Girard's house and counting-house; the slate-roof house in which William Penn lived; the Market House; the Town Hall; and other buildings which could be seen on High Street in 1776.

HISTORICAL REPRODUCTIONS AT THE SESQUI-CENTENNIAL



Reproduction of Sulgrave Manor House, the ancestral home of the Washingtons in England.



Reproduction of Mount Vernon.

HISTORICAL REPRODUCTIONS AT THE SESQUI-CENTENNIAL

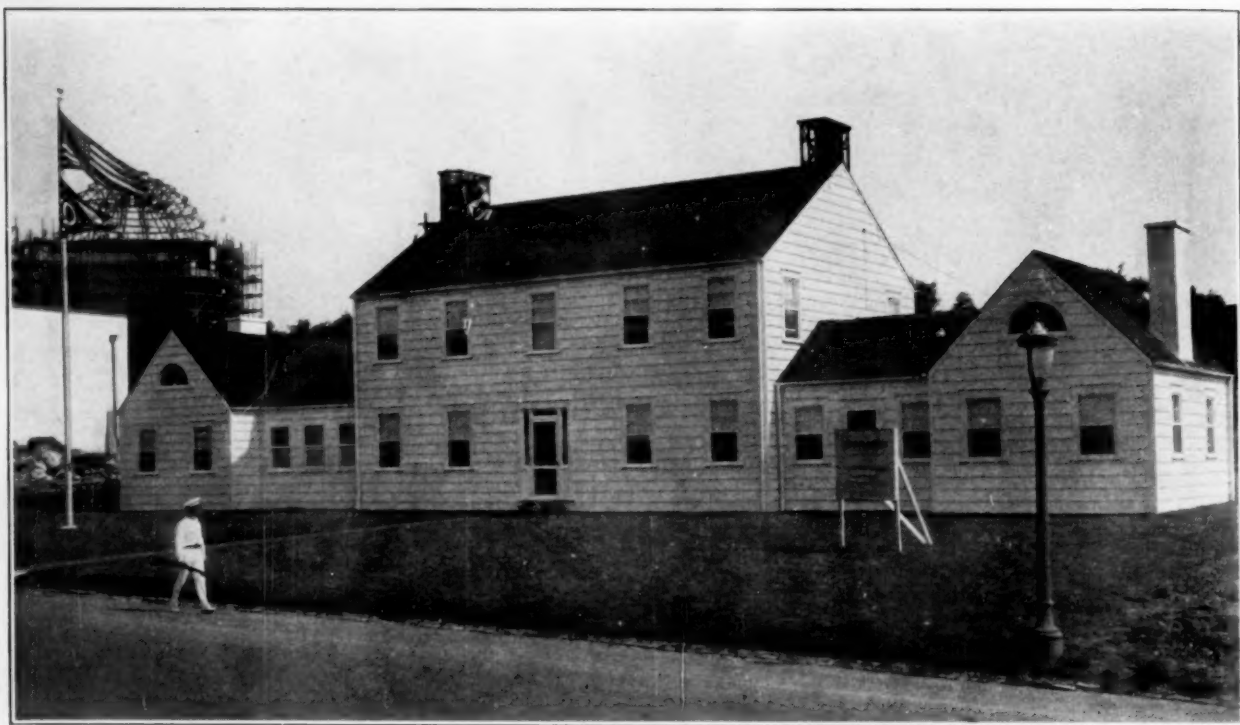


Connecticut Building—a reproduction with some changes of the early State capitol building.



Washington's Headquarters at Newburg, erected by the State of New York.

HISTORICAL REPRODUCTIONS AT THE SESQUI-CENTENNIAL



The Ohio Building—reconstruction of the home of William Henry Harrison, the first President given by Ohio to the nation.



The New Jersey Building—a replica of the Barracks in Trenton, erected about 1753, and used during the French and Indian War and the Revolution.

tion of leader, but not in the domineering manner of the average teacher-questioner.

For the development of new material, the socialized recitation is unsuited, since, in view of the immaturity of the students, it would involve the blind leading the blind, and the waste of the most valuable asset of the class—the teacher's training. For an occasional variation in the conduct of the recitation and instruction upon comparatively simple content, it has been found admirable.

Two outstanding criticisms of the socialized recitation have been made:

1. It is held that students will prepare on one or two problems, recite on these and ignore the other problems. It is likely to lead to pupil's studying only one part of the day's lesson.

2. It is contended that the day's assignment can be covered more thoroughly if questions are asked by the teacher.

Dowell contends that the first criticism can be overcome if the instructor will call in notebooks frequently and without notice. The teacher can deal individually with the loafer. Frequent written lessons, in which students must write out answers to all problems of the day, eliminate loafing. The second criticism can be met, he thinks, if students are taught to investigate thoroughly in the investigation period, the problems to be covered in the discussion.¹⁹

Davis sees many weaknesses in the socialized recitation. The chief ones that he mentions are:

1. The socialized recitation offers little to insure participation by all members of the class. Without a skillful teacher, the alert, intelligent and dominating monopolize. The pupil leader, being responsible, dislikes to inflict an uninteresting member on the rest of the class. A large number in many classes are content to sit in apathy, caring little what takes place in the class.²⁰

2. Fragmentary and unorganized work is likely to result from pupil leadership. The leader can have no well-thought-out plan; he cannot know where he is going with his class and it requires great skill for the teacher to furnish a balanced outline without killing individual and group initiative. Classroom enthusiasm is only partly a reliable guide. Pupils may keep discussion upon unimportant and unrelated material. Unskillfully directed, the plan wastes pupil's time.

3. The contributions of pupils who talk from the floor may easily degenerate. Some resort to familiar fault-finding about very small matters. Others, in order to be in the game, force themselves to talk even though they have nothing to say.

4. Being pre-eminently social, the socialized recitation presents many chances for making mistakes. Many blunders are committed. The recitation often degenerates into a parrot-like procedure.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The socialized recitation is an attempt on the part of the schools to provide a social situation in the classroom. This form of recitation is especially applicable to the history class because of the social nature of the subject. In a class conducted in this way, students receive training in leadership, co-operation, initiative, and civic habits.

The plan is successful only under the skilled teacher; it offers a rich opportunity for the unskilled teacher to do ineffective work. As a regular form, it

may be wasteful of time and deprive the pupils of the carefully organized units and planned assignments of the strong teacher. The best plan is to set aside certain periods of the week or portions of the term for the pupils to conduct the work.

Every recitation should be socialized in the sense that all pupils may be given a chance to participate. This may be accomplished under teacher as well as pupil leadership. But too often teacher leadership is teacher domination.

Since the aim of history instruction is to develop social attitudes, and to train students for life citizenship in a democracy, then that democracy should exist in the class room. If the socialized recitation provides an opportunity for democratic participation, it has some place in the history class room.

¹ *Teaching of High School Subjects*, p. 205.

² *Ibid.*, p. 170.

³ Welton, *Principles and Methods of Teaching*, p. 225.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 226.

⁵ *Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High School*, 21 f.

⁶ "Problems of Methods in History Teaching," *School Review*, XXIV, 336 f.

⁷ *Elementary School Standards*, 5 ff.

⁸ Tryon, "High School History Recitation," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII, 238.

⁹ Nolan, "Socialized Class in History or Civics," *Journal of Education*, XCV, 63 f.

¹⁰ Pierce, "Socialized Recitation," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XI, 190.

¹¹ Dowell, "History Instruction in Bucyrus High School," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XI, 356 f.

¹² Nolan, "The Socialized Class in History or Civics," *Journal of Education*, XCV, 65 f.

¹³ Mackie, "History Recitation Socialized," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, X, 256 f.

¹⁴ Stockton, "Teaching Current Events," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XI, 13 ff.

¹⁵ Morehouse, "Forms of History Recitation," *History Teacher's Magazine*, VII, 337.

¹⁶ Mackie, "History Recitation Socialized," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, X, 257 f.

¹⁷ Mackie, "History Recitation Socialized," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, X, 257 f.

¹⁸ Dowell, "History Instruction in Bucyrus High School," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XI, 359.

¹⁹ Dowell, "Method of Instruction in the Bucyrus High School," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XI, 359.

²⁰ *Technique of Teaching*, 10.

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Directions for Study

PREPARED BY MARY S. GOLD, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—The following suggestions for study, prepared by Miss Gold, are distributed in mimeographed form to the students in the University High School, Minneapolis, Minn. It is believed they will be valuable to other teachers in making up direction sheets.

Preliminary or Mechanical Directions:

- I. The opening of a new book.
 - A. Lay the book on a table or desk.
 - B. First open one cover and then the other.
 - C. Taking the pages in small groups, alternating from the front to the back of the book, open the book at intervals until the center is reached.
- II. Do you wish to find a certain chapter, or what topic is in a certain chapter or vice versa?
 - A. Look in the Table of Contents.
 - B. The Table of Contents is at the beginning of the book and is an outline of the material.
- III. What is the use of the index in the back?
 - A. To find the page on which a certain topic or name is discussed.
 - B. Many textbooks mark the words in the index for pronunciation.
 1. These familiar examples may help you to understand the marks.
 - a. Minnēāpolis
 - b. Minnēhāhā
 - c. University
 - d. Constantīnōple
 - e. High Schōōl
 2. Try these which may be unfamiliar.
 - a. Themistoclēs
 - b. Bourgeoisie (bōōrzhwāzē)
 - c. Dēāk
 3. See the directions for pronunciation at the beginning of the index.
- IV. Use the dictionary for new words.
 - A. Perhaps you may wish to use them for a speech or paper in some other course.
 - B. A list of new words could be kept in this notebook—see pages () for vocabulary.
- V. Did you ever get dizzy trying to find something on a map in a book or an atlas?
 - B. See if your book does not give you some description that will help you find the place. That map in your book was made just to show that place and a few others.
 - B. If you have no key or cue for finding the place use an atlas.
 1. There are geographical and historical atlases.
 2. If you do not find it in one kind, perhaps you can in another.
 3. Use the index of the atlas. It is like any book index because it will give you a number or page number for the map you need.
 4. It will also give you directions by number or letter or both.
 - a. You will find these signs on the margin of your map.
 - b. Trace them from the top and side margin.
 - c. There is your place in that little square set off by lines of longitude and latitude.
- VI. Do you take responsibility? It is something you can have for your own if you want it.
 - A. Keeping your assignment clear and straight.
 1. Some people always borrow them.
 2. Some people often lose them.
 3. Some people cannot read their own writing.
 - B. What about bringing necessary tools to class?
 1. Textbook and notebook.
 2. Paper, pen, pencil.
 3. Work to be handed in.

- C. When it is impossible to complete the assignment, do you make a reasonable explanation to the teacher?
 1. Or do you take the chance that the lack will will not be discovered?
 2. Or do you waste the time of the class bluffing it?

VII. Procedure when the lesson is a page or paragraph assignment in the book.

- A. Read the whole assignment through first to get the idea.
 1. Use the signs that tell you to refer to some other part of the book.
 - §—section
 - §§—sections
 - p—page
 - pp—pages
 - f—following
 - ff—several pages following
 2. A footnote is sometimes more interesting than the rest of the page.
- B. Perhaps you need to review the foregoing lesson to get the connection.
- C. Is it difficult for you to remember the important points of your lesson?
 1. On scratch paper write down the first direction of your assignment.
 2. Below list the points found in your book to answer the question.
 3. Proceed in the same way with other topics of the assignment.
 4. Put a star by anything you could not find. Ask about it in class.
 5. If new names appear, list them and learn them by
 - a. Connecting an event with each.
 - b. If a place, finding it on the map.
 - c. Pronouncing each aloud according to the marking in the index.
 (If the book you are using has no index, or if the index is not marked, use the gazetteer and biographical lists at the back of the dictionary.)
 6. Review your own study notes before class if possible, especially if you did the work the day before.

Directions for ambitious or original pupils:

- I. Is there anything in the lesson that you could illustrate by a picture, sketch, map, or diagram?
 - A. Perhaps you are clever at this, while other members of the class are not.
 - B. The teacher will be glad to have such work brought to class or put on the board.
 - C. Without labeling your work, see if the teacher and class can guess what you intend to show.
- II. You have learned how to make graphs in mathematics. Is there any material in the lesson you could graph?
- III. Is there anything in the lesson that could be acted out so that it would be both entertaining and helpful?
 - A. You may be given the opportunity to lead a group in putting on a little impromptu scene in class.
- IV. Make three or four quiz questions from the lesson that you would like to spring on other members of the class.
- V. If you were given the opportunity to give an oral summary of the whole lesson, could you do it?

Directions for supplementary work:

- I. Special topic or reading other than the textbook (collateral reading).
 - A. Reading directions for textbook study may be used—see Preliminary Directions VII.

B. If you wish to take notes, the following directions may help you:

1. Do not copy the book; that will take you too long and be of little use if you are not allowed to read it in class.
2. Locate the key or topical sentence in each paragraph. (Caution: Do not use the paragraph heading or black print in the margin unless you agree with it. Sometimes these are very misleading.)
3. Restate this topic to suit yourself, in the way you think you could make it most clear to the class.
4. Outline under this topic the sub-points you wish to present or remember.
5. Try to summarize the whole when you have finished.

II. Preparation of other types of special work; such as original written work based on material being studied, map, table, problem, or making of something by hand.

- A. Take down directions carefully.
- B. Ask questions at start, not after it is too late.
- C. Do not attempt what you do not understand.
- D. Caution: Find out if there is any danger of your spoiling your work by doing more than is required; for example,
 1. A map may be confusing if too much is put on it.
 2. A table cannot be clear if you try to show too many things.
 3. Get your materials, such as reference books, maps, pictures, etc., together before you start.

Testing Vocabulary in History

BY MARY S. GOLD, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

We are so often asked, "Why do you give all this time to Ancient History?" or "Why teach Medieval History at all?" "Don't you think many of the words in the Ancient History texts too hard for freshmen and sophomores?" There are, of course, many proper answers to be made which we need not detail here. Questions such as the third, on the vocabulary of textbooks, suggest one of the objectives of history which many would call a by-product. What terms, necessary or practical for daily use or subsequent study of history, can be easily and thoroughly taught in a course of Ancient History? If many of these words are too difficult, how are these difficulties to be foreseen and how may the results be measured? Questions such as these have led to an experiment in the vocabulary gain through a year's course in Ancient and Medieval History.

The first step consisted in making a test using a list of words and terms selected on the basis of general use rather than that of historical information. Though no two persons would select exactly the same words, we could agree on a basis of choice and no claim was made to completeness in selection. The result was the test included in this paper.

The actual experiment was launched with the giving of the test to a group of high school pupils who had had Ancient History and part of Medieval and to a group of equal number who had had no high school history at all. These groups were practically matched in I.Q., the average being 116.

Out of a possible eighty-four points the history group scored an average of 66.04, the median being practically the same. The non-history group scored an average of 45. Scatter graphs of each group were made to find out the correlation with I.Q. There was found to be a higher positive correlation in the history group.

These results were interesting enough to lead to some revision of the test and to expanding it into two parts to cover the full period of Medieval History, including some points to cover reteaching of difficulties shown in Part I. The copy inclosed is the revised test used in the following manner during the

year. At the opening of school Part I is given to all pupils registered for Ancient and Medieval History. The purpose is to find those who already have such a vocabulary or are lacking in this background. The scores among fifty-five pupils this year ranged from 15 to 45 points correct out of the total 55 points. The median was 33. In March this test was repeated and scores and particular errors compared with the September results. The median was raised to 41.

Some of the interesting cases were specially noted. The youngest pupil, a girl of twelve, raised her score of fifteen in September to forty-one in March. The oldest pupil, a senior of seventeen, had raised her score from twenty-nine to forty-two. The fact that she was a senior taking a freshman-sophomore course shows her to be slow. The average, attentive boy had come up from twenty-seven to forty-three. A bright, lazy boy had thirty-nine in September and the same score in March. His errors were noted to be the same and he was actually impressed. The highest score in September was raised from forty-five to forty-eight.

In both 1925 and 1926 the difficult words were found to be: migration and colonization, empire and imperialism, absolute and limited, sovereign and dictator, citizenship and naturalization, Ionic and Doric, oriental and occidental (American being given for occidental), and vassal and vandal. Some of these difficulties arise from the fact that these pupils have a change of teacher nearly every week on account of this high school being a teacher training school. In this way the weaknesses of one unit are not always taken care of in the next. A class under the same teacher throughout the year might be expected to show different results.

The pupils have been shown the results on long scrolls of paper—showing the highest to the lowest score and the median with striking cases circled in color. Part II was given the first of April and the scores posted. This will be repeated in June. In this way the experiment has been given away and the pupils let into a full understanding of what we are trying to do. As a result, the interest in spotting and learning words is much keener.

HISTORY VOCABULARY TEST

Grades IX, X, XI.

Score _____

City _____ County _____ State _____ Date _____
 Name _____ Age _____ Race _____ Sex _____
 School _____ Teacher _____ Grade _____

PART I A.

Draw a line under the History which you have had: Ancient, Medieval, Modern, American.

Draw a line under the word in parentheses that most correctly completes the meaning of the sentence.

Place the number of the word on the line in the margin: For example, see Number 1.

1. President Coolidge is a (1. follower; 2. descendant; 3. successor; 4. predecessor) of President Lincoln. 3
2. The plan of organization and government of a nation or a society is called a (1. constitution; 2. code of laws; 3. rule; 4. ordinance). _____
3. A (1. legion; 2. legend; 3. legacy; 4. legate) is a story, often doubtful as true history, which has been handed down from one generation to another. _____
4. The city was supplied with water by (1. viaducts; 2. aqueducts; 3. aquatics; 4. aquariums). _____
5. The people of the western part of the world are called (1. American; 2. oriental; 3. occidental; 4. incidental). _____
6. Some (1. vassal; 2. vandal; 3. verger) was guilty of this plunder and wilful destruction. _____
7. Eclipses are foretold by (1. astrology; 2. divination; 3. oracles; 4. astronomy; 5. omens). _____
8. People's fortunes are foretold by (1. alchemy; 2. astronomy; 3. astrology; 4. geology). _____
9. A monk is a member of the (1. regular; 2. insular; 3. secular; 4. parish) clergy. _____
10. His aristocratic appearance and manner showed him to be of (1. plebeian; 2. patrimonial; 3. patrician; 4. patriot) blood. _____
11. Her face was so like a (1. sphere; 2. sphinx; 3. pyramid) that it was difficult to tell what she was thinking. _____
12. (1. Paper; 2. parchment; 3. pasteboard; 4. papyrus) is a writing material made from sheepskin. _____
13. (1. Puzzle-making; 2. tapestry; 3. scripture; 4. mosaic) is the art of putting together bits of glass or stone to form figures or designs for decoration. _____
14. When groups of people leave their home country to settle in new lands we call the movement (1. exploration; 2. discovery; 3. colonization; 4. migration). _____
15. A (1. sculpture; 2. sculptor; 3. statue; 4. architect) makes figures of stone or bronze by modelling or carving. _____
16. Figures carved or raised slightly from a surface or background are (1. sculptor; 2. statue; 3. bas-relief; 4. basilica). _____
17. President Coolidge is a (1. follower; 2. descendant; 3. successor; 4. predecessor) of President Lincoln. _____
18. The (1. Ionic; 2. Corinthian; 3. Athenian; 4. Doric; 5. Gothic) style of architecture is distinguished by a column without a base, the capital of which is a plain square block. _____

19. Because he used only a few, short, forceful words, the newspaper said he was (1. eloquent; 2. interesting; 3. laconic; 4. loquacious).
20. The president (1. elects; 2. approves; 3. appoints; 4. pays) the members of his cabinet.
21. The worship of many gods is (1. polygamy; 2. monotheism; 3. monasticism; 4. polytheism).
22. (1. Bas-relief; 2. mosaic; 3. tapestry; 4. fresco) is a woven wall decoration usually of a pictorial design.
23. The power of the king was (1. spiritual; 2. temporal; 3. feudal; 4. external).
24. The worship of one god is called (1. polygamy; 2. monasticism; 3. monotheism; 4. polytheism).
25. Trading by exchanging goods is (1. selling; 2. barter; 3. purchase; 4. buying; 5. booty).
26. The Mohammedan building of worship is the (1. temple, minaret; 3. mosque; 4. Koran; 5. moslem).
27. (1. Barbarous; 2. pastoral; 3. nomadic; 4. agricultural) people wander about seeking pasturage for their flocks but do not settle down.
28. That part of the government which makes laws is called the (1. legislative; 2. capital; 3. court; 4. executive; 5. judicial) department.
29. A house or line of rulers of the same family is often called a (1. rule; 2. dynasty; 3. administration; 4. sovereignty; 5. order).

PART I B.

Definitions—

Draw a line under the word which fits the definition of the word most accurately. Put the number of the word on the line in the margin.

For example, See Number 1.

1. The bringing about of a great change in the government of a country. 2
1. Imperialism; 2. revolution; 3. Campaign; 4. Anarchy; 5. Battle.
2. One who shows foresight and skill in the management of government.
1. Ruler; 2. Politician; 3. General; 4. Statesman; 5. Lawyer.
3. A government in which the king's powers are shared by others or defined by a constitution. 1. Limited monarchy; 2. Anarchy; 3. Absolute monarchy; 4. Autocracy.
4. A country which has extended its power over other countries or nationalities. 1. Kingdom; 2. City State; 3. Empire; 4. Nation; 5. Realm.
5. Government by the people. 1. Bureaucracy; 2. Autocracy; 3. Democracy; 4. Aristocracy.
6. Government by a few or small group. 1. Despotism; 2. Oligarchy; 3. Community; 4. Local government; 5. Limited monarchy.
7. Representative government or a country in which the people rule themselves through officers elected by them. 1. State; 2. Monarchy; 3. Republic; 4. Empire; 5. Mother Country.
8. Ruler with complete power over a country. 1. Dynast; 2. Sovereign; 3. Dictator; 4. President.
9. Ruler of a single nation having monarchy as the form of government.
1. President; 2. King; 3. Emperor; 4. Despot; 5. Pharaoh.
10. The bringing about of a great change in the government of a country.
1. Imperialism; 2. Campaign; 3. Anarchy; 4. Lawlessness; 5. Revolution; 6. Battle.
11. A land in which most of the people are of the same race and civilization.
1. Ally; 2. Federation; 3. Empire; 4. Nation.

12. The right of the people to take part in the government. 1. Citizenship; 2. Revolution; 3. Popular government; 4. Naturalization. _____
13. A nation which has been brought under the power of another. 1. Subject; 2. Ally; 3. Neutral; 4. Confederate. _____
14. Settlement of disputes without war. 1. Mobilization; 2. Belligerency; 3. Arbitration; 4. Imperialism; 5. Neutrality; 6. Arbitrary Rule. _____
15. Struggle between two parts or factions of a country. 1. Revolution; 2. Mobilization; 3. Crusade; 4. Civil war; 5. Enlistment. _____
16. Desire of a country to extend its control over other countries or lands. 1. Sovereignty; 2. Monarchy; 3. Despotism; 4. Imperialism; 5. Campaign. _____
17. One active in government managed by parties and office-holding. 1. Statesman; 2. Partisan; 3. Politician; 4. Citizen; 5. Lawyer. _____
18. An absolute and tyrannical ruler. 1. Dictator; 2. Despot; 3. Queen; 4. King; 5. Emperor. _____
19. A country united to another by treaty or league. 1. Neutral; 2. Mother Country; 3. Ally; 4. Empire; 5. Nation; 6. Subject. _____
20. Giving the rights and privileges of a native of the country to those from other countries. 1. Citizenship; 2. Nationality; 3. Protection; 4. Naturalization; 5. Voting. _____
21. A country which assists neither side of a dispute. 1. Ally; 2. Neutral; 3. Subject; 4. Belligerent; 5. Republic. _____
22. A plan of conducting or managing a war, business, or country. 1. Constitution; 2. Edict; 3. Policy; 4. Diplomacy; 5. Rule. _____
23. An attempt or venture undertaken with great zeal and moral enthusiasm. 1. Revolution; 2. Civil war; 3. Crusade; 4. Mobilization; 5. Insurrection. _____

PART II A.

In each of the following sentences one or more words are in *italics*. After each sentence are several words in parentheses. Select and draw a line under the word in parentheses which most nearly corresponds in meaning to the word in *italics* in the sentence. Put the number of the word on the line in the margin. For example see Number I.

1. Their purpose was *exploration*. (1. migration; 2. colonization; 3. investigation; 4. exploitation.) 3 _____
2. Many European countries have cabinet *ministers* who actually carry on the government. (1. clergymen; 2. secretaries; 3. legates; 4. priest; 5. ambassadors.) _____
3. The city has a *charter*. (1. character; 2. ordinance; 3. treaty; 4. law; 5. constitution.) _____
4. They formed an *alliance*. (1. reliance; 2. allegiance; 3. league; 4. affinity; 5. allowance.) _____
5. It was a *searching examination*. (1. imposition; 2. iniquity; 3. inquisition; 4. function.) _____
6. *Disorder* prevented efficient government. (1. monarchy; 2. oligarchy; 3. anarchy; 4. socialism.) _____
7. He was given life *tenure*. (1. sentence; 2. hold; 3. insurance; 4. tenant; 5. term; 6. tenor.) _____
8. He demanded *allegiance*. (1. subjection; 2. fidelity; 3. truthfulness; 4. ostracism; 5. alliance.) _____
9. It was a *vassal* state. (1. vandal; 2. prelate; 3. dependent; 4. valiant.) _____
10. They declared a *truce*. (1. dividend; 2. peace; 3. bonus; 4. armistice.) _____

11. He became *one of the people* of the United States. (1. Natives; 2. aliens; 3. subjects; 4. citizens; 5. peasants.)
12. They came to seek *democracy* in the new world. (1. citizenship; 2. wealth; 3. popular-government; 4. aristocracy; 5. success.)
13. *Exemption* was granted. (1. dispensation; 2. freedom; 3. right-of-way; 4. leave-of-absence.)
14. The government was spending more than its *revenue*. 1. expenses; 2. routine; 3. capital; 4. income; 5. deficit.)
15. The *Papal* power is not so great now as in the Middle Ages. (1. naval; 2. feudal; 3. monarch's; 4. Pope's; 5. military; 6. priest's.)
16. The archbishop *excommunicated* him. (1. expelled; 2. summoned; 3. ordained; 4. exiled; 5. announced; 6. invested.)
17. It was a *church* law. (1. Catholic; 2. Roman; 3. Common; 4. Canon; 5. State.)
18. The *prelate* blessed him. (1. priest; 2. bishop; 3. preacher; 4. monk; 5. spirit.)
19. The priest's duties were more *worldly* than those of the monk. (1. sacred; 2. regular; 3. secular; 4. spiritual; 5. papal.)
20. The *doctrine* is much the same. (1. document; 2. creed; 3. opinion; 4. decision; 5. question; 6. medicine.)
21. The life of a *celibate* was required. (1. prisoner; 2. hermit; 3. celebrity; 4. unmarried-man; 5. pleasure-seeker.)
22. His neighbors called him a *heretic*. 1. miser; 2. hero; 3. celibate; 4. unbeliever; 5. hermit.)
23. They were *protestants*. (1. reformers, unbelievers; 3. celibates; 4. peasants.)
24. We admired the *facade*. (1. parade; 2. clerestory; 3. ceiling; 4. front; 5. dome.)
25. We entered the *nave*. (1. entrance; 2. cathedral; 3. center-aisle; 4. transept; 5. facade.)
26. This must date back to *primitive* ages. (1. medieval; 2. prehistoric; 3. ecclesiastic; 4. ancient; 5. memorial.)
27. The old *annals* of history are interesting. (1. cathedrals; 2. chronicles; 3. superstitions; 4. characters.)
28. He promised *penance*. (1. pension; 2. justice; 3. reparation; 4. receipt; 5. reward.)
29. Chivalry was a *model* standard. (1. ordeal; 2. ideal; 3. fantastic; 4. immortal; 5. fighting.)
30. That is only *logical*. (1. logrolling; 2. arguing; 3. reasonable; 4. disputing; 5. local.)
31. There was a *rebirth of culture*. (1. progress; 2. renovation; 3. Reformation; 4. Renaissance; 5. reparation.)
32. The building was thoroughly *buttressed*. (1. fortified; 2. supported; 3. furnished; 4. examined.)
33. He showed great *broad-mindedness*. (1. generosity; 2. endurance; 3. indifference; 4. license; 5. toleration.)
34. She has a very *changeable* disposition. (1. attractive, spiritual; 3. mercurial; 4. jovial; 5. gloomy.)
35. He is a *jovial* companion. (1. joyous; 2. stout; 3. faithful; 4. saturnine; 5. trustworthy.)
36. He was a member of the *organization*. (1. church; 2. school-board; 3. order; 4. class; 5. family.)

37. Honesty is one of the *principal* virtues. (1. characteristic; 2. cardinal; 3. necessary; 4. rarest.) _____
38. She led a *secluded* life. (1. secretive; 2. admirable; 3. religious; 4. unhealthy; 5. cloistered.) _____
39. He was a *peasant*. (1. artisan; 2. journeyman; 3. prelate; 4. citizen; 5. country-laborer.) _____
40. He was an *artisan*. (1. peasant; 2. citizen; 3. vassal; 4. city-worker; 5. country-laborer.) _____
41. She was *ostracized* by her acquaintances. (1. entertained; 2. honored; 3. excluded; 4. criticized; 5. introduced.) _____
42. He is more *extreme* than his brother. (1. conservative; 2. radical; 3. stylish; 4. excitable; 5. tall.) _____
43. She is *self-seeking*. (1. mercenary; 2. curious; 3. critical; 4. self-conscious.) _____
44. Their purpose was *investigation*. (1. migration; 2. colonization; 3. exploration; 4. exploitation.) _____

PART II B.

Draw a line under the word in the parentheses that most correctly completes the meaning of the sentence. Place the number of the word on the line in the margin. For example see Number 1.

1. While he was learning the trade he was (1. an apostle; 2. an apprentice; 3. a master; 4. a starter; 5. a student). 2 _____
2. Much of the law of the United States is based upon (1. Roman; 2. Canon; 3. State; 4. Church; 5. Common Law). _____
3. (1. Medieval; 2. classical; 3. Anglo-Saxon; 4. ecclesiastical;) literature is that of the Ancient Romans and Greeks. _____
4. One who is entitled to the privileges and protection of a country is called a (1. native; 2. citizen; 3. alien; 4. subject; 5. ally). _____
5. Upon graduation a college student receives the (1. bachelor's; 2. masonic; 3. master's; 4. doctor's; 5. third) degree. _____
6. The official church of a bishop is a (1. monastery; 2. bishopric; 3. basilica; 4. cathedral; 5. diocese). _____
7. The study of religion is (1. biology; 2. theology; 3. genealogy; 4. doxology; 5. Christian Science). _____
8. Kings who were ruling about the same time may be spoken of as (1. rivals; 2. extemporary; 3. contemporary; 4. chronological). _____
9. In European countries, business and professional men are often called the (1. middlemen; 2. laymen; 3. artisans; 4. bourgeoisie). _____
10. When countries fight for territory that is valuable for trade, we say that the cause is (1. political; 2. religious; 3. economic; 4. social; 5. hereditary). _____
11. The college of (1. electors; 2. cardinals; 3. bishops; 4. priests; 5. monks) elects the pope. _____
12. While he was learning the trade he was (1. an apostle; 2. an apprentice; 3. a master; 4. a starter; 5. a student). _____
13. Ecclesiastical history is history of (1. education; 2. the church; 3. the nation; 4. the Renaissance; 5. politics). _____
14. (1. Chivalry; 2. Heraldry; 3. Illuminating; 4. Knighthood) is the art or science of family-trees and armor-bearings. _____
15. The study of family-trees and lines of descent is (1. History; 2. geology; 3. genealogy; 4. theology; 5. zoology). _____

16. (1. Ionic; 2. Doric; 3. Gothic; 4. Corinthian; 5. Romanesque) architecture is that which is distinguished by pointed arches, thin walls, many windows and buttresses.
17. The (1. winged; 2. flying; 3. sunken; 4. stained-glass; 5. vaulted) buttress was characteristic of the architecture of the Middle Ages.
18. Interest is a kind of (1. capital; 2. deficit; 3. rent; 4. usury) charged for the use of money.
19. (1. Capital; 2. interest; 3. income; 4. revenue; 5. profit) is money or goods used to produce more money or goods.

Vitalizing the Teaching of History

BY PROFESSOR A. W. BURR, BELOIT COLLEGE

History and English make up half the curriculum in most high schools. They are intended to relate the boys and girls to the world of thought and deed of the past and to the life of tomorrow. They are subjects worthy of the best teaching and of the most earnest study. But both are usually most poorly taught, and most aimlessly studied.

WHAT IS THE MATTER WITH THE TEACHING AND THE STUDY OF HISTORY?

(1) Often its monotony, its steady grind of five, six, seven pages daily. Importance, interest, even pictures do not count.

(2) The classroom procedure is often only a retelling, retelling imperfectly, haltingly, darkly, in fragments, day after day. It is ever an old story in the classroom.

(3) The classroom emphasis is on the way it is retold, not on what makes it worth retelling. A good performance is a full repetition of words, or ideas.

(4) It is made a memory task of series of facts, acts, names, dates. It is not ever a recreation of the past, a living over in imagination, a dramatization in words.

(5) Its tense sign is *was, was*; and not *has been*, relating to the present, its conditions, results, acts, characters, motives, principles.

(6) It is only the skeleton of the past that is studied. Its flesh and blood, incidents, stories, sayings are not there. A history for schools ought to be a book large enough so that parts may be studied, lived over, parts be read only, and parts skipped if one wants to do so.

(7) Like literature, it is made up of pages of reading in the mother tongue, and admits of many kinds of study in preparation. There may be only a hasty reading, the glance of perception; or the memory task of committing words, ideas, figures. It may be, as one reads, the recreation of events, scenes, characters, in imagination; or the finding of causes, conditions, the comparison of past and present, in thinking; or the moral sense evaluating motive, principle, the qualities of human and national character.

The study of History has too often been made dry,

uninteresting because the teacher has kept the requirement in the memory stage of development long after the higher activities have awakened. It is imagination and thinking that make History liked and studied. The purpose of this paper is to open to teacher and learner some possibilities of approach to History by these higher mental activities.

WHAT IS THE STUDY OF HISTORY FOR TODAY?

That boys and girls may have some acquaintance with the ways of life of the past; that their ways of life tomorrow may be wiser, better thereby; that the history of their day may be better, worthier, than any yet written.

What objectives in teaching will serve that purpose for boys and girls in their study of History?

1. Helping them to know in word and in imagination the ways of life, the sayings and doings of men and peoples of the past.

2. Helping them to discover some of the causes, conditions and motives of human action.

3. Helping them to evaluate the ways of life, motives, qualities, spirit of men and peoples.

HOW MAY YOU TEACH BOYS AND GIRLS TO HAVE SOME ACQUAINTANCE WITH MEN AND PEOPLES BOTH BY WORD AND IN REALITY?

(a) You can say as you assign the part for a lesson, "Read through carefully once. Reread paragraphs 2, 3, 7, 8, and 10, and write out one main statement in each. Be ready to read your statement and give the points of the paragraph. Practice."

(b) Or, "Read through once carefully. Study paragraphs 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, so that when I read the first line or statement you can tell us about the paragraph."

(c) Or, "Read through carefully once. Reread and stop on paragraphs 2, 3, 4, and fill out the picture of — (e. g., The Battle of Issus), and on 7, 8, of — (naming the picture). Try to see what the author saw as he wrote. Be ready to give us, not what the book says, but what you saw. Begin, I saw —. Practice."

(d) Or, "Read through carefully. Reread paragraphs 1, 3, 4, 7, 8. Select a key word for each.

Write the number of paragraph and key word on paper and hand to me. Be ready to give the story, or a picture when we give you one of your key words. Practice."

(e) Or, "James, Henry, and Alice may write down and hand in five topics, or name five pictures, for us to talk about."

(f) Or, "Read through carefully. Select the five important paragraphs and hand in a question on each with its number, for class questions, or call for some picture you want given."

(g) Or, "Read carefully and select the points, places, and persons you would like to know more about. Write them to read to us."

(h) Or, "Julia, George, and James may read what the — History says about this epoch or man, and give us the additional points there found."

(i) Or, "Arthur, Harold, and Ann may consult Encyclopedias and give us more about — man, or — people."

(j) Or, "George, John, and Mary may prepare to read to us paragraphs 3, 5, 8, in such a way as to make plain what they mean. Practice." (Assign this often.)

(k) Or, "Ask Julia to write the history of the class for one month, and John the history of the town, or of the school."

HOW MAY YOU HELP BOYS AND GIRLS TO FIND CAUSES, CONDITIONS, MOTIVES, IN THEIR STUDY OF HISTORY?

You can fit to the lesson some assignment like the following:

(a) "In the lesson today you may find why —," e. g., John Hancock was signing the Declaration of Independence, or the Colony at Jamestown was established.

(b) Or, "In yesterday's and today's lessons George, Henry, and Mary may find for us three or four things that led the people to do as in paragraphs 2, 4, 5 of today's lesson."

(c) Or, "Sydney, Alice, and George may tell us what appear to be the reasons for — (some man) doing as in paragraphs 5, 6, 7 of the lesson."

(d) Or, "Julia, George, and Ann may find for us three common interests or motives of men for doing things, that appear in the lesson, with instances."

(e) Or, "Henry, James, and Elizabeth may find for us three or four ways of doing things in the lesson, that men or nations do today."

(f) Or, "George and John may try to show us in what ways the conditions of the people in our lesson were like those of today, and Lyman and Delia, how they were different."

(g) Or, "Robert and Elizabeth may tell us what qualities the early life of — gave him, or what the place, occupations, and neighbors gave the — people."

(h) Or, "Julia, John, and Mary may find for us and report on the life, views, and writings of the author of the History studied."

(i) Or, at some time name two to report in a week

on the way the History is written, style, purpose, good points. Appoint two to criticize it.

(j) Or, at some time name two to see if they can tell us why so many write about the same men and peoples.

HOW MAY YOU HELP YOUR BOYS AND GIRLS EVALUATE THE WAYS OF LIFE, MOTIVES, QUALITIES, SPIRIT OF MEN AND PEOPLES?

By some such assignment as:

(a) "Read through carefully once. Reread and as you do, pick out three or four most important events or sayings and tell us why each is important."

(b) Or, "Julia, John, and Mary may find for us three worthy qualities of — (man or people) that appear in the lesson. Henry and James may tell us of some unworthy ones."

(c) Or, "Lyman and Ann may find in the lesson ways of life, customs that would be good for us to have."

(d) Or, "Henry and James may find for us good acts and good motives that appear in the life of —, or law of —, or office of —, reign of —, or war of —."

(e) Or, "John and Jane may tell us why they think — was a patriot, a lover of his country; Alice and Lyman what seems to make him self-seeking."

(f) Or, "John and George may find for us proofs of the courage of — and the cowardice of — in our study of —" (men or people).

(g) Or, "You may all find some of the effects of willfulness, deception, ignorance, that appear in this lesson."

(h) Or, "You may give us some of the effects of an absolute monarchy upon a people as they appear in the —."

(i) Or "Julia and Jane may tell us what they see in the last two lessons that make a democracy desirable, and what make it undesirable. Or a monarchy."

(j) Or, "George and John may try to show us that the career of —, or war of —, or law of —, or reign of — was beneficial to the nation. James and Henry that it was not. Each side will be given eight minutes. Julia and Jane will be judges. Any one adding or refuting a point after the debate will be given credit for a recitation."

(k) Or, "John and Julia may tell us about two great leaders of the people we have been studying, and Henry may tell us how nations find leaders."

(l) Or, "Who of you will tell us tomorrow some of the qualities that a leader of a nation must have?"

(m) Or, "Next Wednesday, Arthur and Harriet may tell us what are the advantages of a union of Church and State, as seen in the history of —. Howard and May may give us the disadvantages."

(n) Or, "Julia and James may write the worthy, noble sayings and acts that they find in next week's lessons and may read them to us Friday."

(o) Or, "Jane and Henry may find for us all that the picture on page 139 tells us of the civilization, occupations, manner of life, race, government, and religion of the people." (Do this often.)

BY-THE-WAY SUGGESTIONS

(a) Use the first meeting of the class for an impromptu discussion by class and teacher of what history is, and why we study it.

(b) Avoid any "next-six-pages," or "so-many-pages-a-day" assignments. There are great epochs, characters in the history of peoples. They are worth considering from more than one point of view. Ten pages may occupy three lessons; twenty-five be the reading for one day.

(c) All the class need not have the same assignment. Often have one part take one or two of the possibilities suggested, and another part, other possibilities. It is the same lesson looked at in different ways, enriching it for all.

(d) It is not necessary that all of an assigned lesson be recited, if it is all studied, nor is the order of the text to be always followed. If a lesson has been studied, the relation of any part to the whole may be assumed.

(e) With a new kind of assignment give examples of what you want done, e. g., "Main statements," "key words," "pictures," "proofs," "motives." Do the things with the class first.

(f) Have new kinds of assignments, unless plain, done first by a special assignment to three or four of the abler people. It is their service to the class. After a couple of days, pass the service to another group. That is why names are given under previous headings.

(g) Give thought to the making of assignments. Read the text, and fit your goal, and kind of assignment to the text, and the class. The "possibilities" should help you here. Wise assignments will do more for the class than reading all "handed-in" papers.

(h) Use only the possibilities that you feel you can make go with the class. They are not to be taken in order. Nor all taken. There are different

types, aims. One may be pressed for a time, then dropped for a while. The "possibilities" are to help you to widen history, and the experience and minds of your boys and girls. You may think of others better. *But do not be afraid to try a new path with your class.*

(i) See to it that papers handed in are not copied papers. After they are passed in, parts may be rewritten at once in the class. Do something to head off copying.

(j) Make plain that to read carefully is not to read slowly or over again, but to say to one's self at finishing paragraph, page or chapter, "I see," "strange," "important," "great." Say something; or to read carefully is to mark values by dashes, dots, etc., in margins; or to put down numbers of paragraph or page to reread.

(k) See to it that the reading or study of all the lesson is done, by sometimes asking if it has been done, by throwing questions into the parts not taken up in class, by calling for a three-minute written report on some point of the reading.

(l) Work steadily the points of conditions, causes, motives, principles, qualities of personal and national character, the "possibilities." Stress the people rather than kings and wars.

History is to make youngsters know men and peoples of the past so well that they can know better the men and peoples of their own day, can make by the past a better future for themselves and the world. Their judgments will be imperfect, foolish, wrong, but the only road to good judgment is by the long road of improving judging. It is a high mission to help the young to know something of the worthy men and peoples of the past. It is better to help the young to know why the worthy and noble are accounted worthy and noble.

An Experiment in "Quantity-Quality" Assignment in College Classes

BY CLARK E. PERSINGER, MODESTO (CALIFORNIA) JUNIOR COLLEGE

This is the account of an experiment in awarding grades in a college social science course on the basis of quantity of work done, as well as on the quality of that work. It will readily be recognized as an attempt to apply to college work the "minimum-average-maximum" method of elementary and high schools.

The experiment was carried through a year's continuous course covering a one-half-year survey-review of American history and a one-half-year study of "actual" American government, in a class meeting three times a week for eighteen weeks of actual class work each semester, and composed of about thirty second-year college students, approximately evenly divided between the two sexes. The standards of the

course were purposely set slightly lower than those usual for such a class, in order that the new method might not have such great resistance to overcome during its first or experimental year.

The illustrative matter and statistics presented are taken mostly from the course in government, in which the textbook was Young's "New American Government," with the work of the course divided into the following five "parts" or "topics": (1) Local Government, 2 weeks; (2) State Government, 4 weeks; (3) National Government, 7 weeks; (4) International Government, 2 weeks; (5) Public Opinion, the Press, and the Future of Democracy, 3 weeks.

I. ASSIGNMENTS

"D" or "Minimum" Assignment. For a minimum or "passing" grade, each student was required (1) to study for each recitation from 12 to 15 pages in the textbook (Young), and to pass satisfactorily a 15-minute test on each such assignment at the beginning of the recitation period for which it had been assigned; (2) to read during each week about 20 pages in some duplicated reference book of not very difficult character, and to pass a satisfactory test on same at the time of completing each "part" or "topic" in class; (3) on the completion of the "part" or "topic," to take a general review test covering the content of textbook and classroom work (occasional lectures, regular "discussion"), as well the test just referred to under "2"; (4) at the next recitation after the review-test, to take a "make-up" test on all important points missed in the review-test, corrected papers for which had meanwhile been returned to the members of the class.

"C" Additional Assignment. For those wishing to attempt the next higher ("C") grade, an additional list of reference readings was given, in amount nearly equal to those required for the "D" grade, but slightly more difficult in character, requiring more in the way of re-organization and interpretation. A test on these additional readings was given on "make-up" day; the theory being that a student of "C" ability would make enough fewer errors, and do faster enough work, to enable him to complete the additional test while "D" students were still occupied with the completion of their "D" make-up work.

"B" Additional Assignment. Similarly, and on the same theory, still additional and more difficult readings, dealing with more advanced and abstract phases of the topics under consideration, were given to those wishing to attempt the "B" grade, and the test on these was also expected to be completed during "D" make-up day.

"Reserved" Grade. For experimental purposes, the instructor in the course reserved the right or privilege of raising by one "step" (D to C, C to B, B to A), for markedly superior quality, any grade attained under the above-described process; this modification of attainment grades being done at the close of semester, in averaging each student's grades for the five different "parts" or "topics" of the course. Students who had not satisfactorily completed "D" make-up work on any topic were reported "conditioned" or "failed" if trying for the "D" grade alone, or marked down one "step" if "C" or "C" and "B" work had been satisfactorily done on that same topic.

II. METHODS OF TESTING

Although the subject is not necessarily connected with that under discussion, it seems advisable to comment briefly on the methods of testing employed in this experimental work.

Both "new" and "old" types of tests were employed, though the "new" were used more frequently

than the "old." A very few "true-false" tests were made use of, on topics concerning whose contents students were believed least likely to resort to a "guessing" gamble. Numerous "multiple choice" tests (three to five choices) were made use of. Still more often, "matching" or "pairing" tests, carrying from ten to twenty "pairs," were resorted to. On some topics especially appropriate, and occasionally in order to check up on student understanding and thinking, "discussion" tests were used either in part or altogether. The final examination, because of certain local administrative requirements, was a "discussion" test entirely.

Although the instructor in the course is a strong believer in daily tests on advance reading assignments, such daily tests constitute no necessary part of the "quantity-quality" method itself. As can readily be seen, the "quantity-quality" method may be used whether tests are daily, occasional, or only final.

III. PREPARATION TIME TOTALS

Merely for his own enlightenment, the instructor requested each student to turn in at each meeting of the class a time-card, showing at what time of the day his studying for that recitation had been done, on which portion of the assigned work (including review) his time had been spent, and how much time he had thus spent in preparation.

All records in this experimental course were posted periodically for class inspection, and studied rather diligently by a large proportion of the class. Fear of being considered a "dumbbell" by other members of the class or by the instructor, or desire to be rated as "quick" or "bright," apparently caused a moderate tendency on the part of all students to report less time than was actually being used in preparation—a reversal of the usual practice. From certain personal check-ups, and from occasional check-ups on library charge slips, it seems fair to assert, however, that the proportions, if not the actual totals, are fairly accurate in the following table of time-totals (in hours) reported by the members of the class who attained the final grades indicated:

For "D" Grade—95, 77, 59, 54, 52, 52, 49, 40, 40, 34
 For "C" Grade—120, 106, 105, 92, 91, 89, 86, 66, 66, 66, 64
 For "B" Grade—107, 85, 77, 71, 69, 61, 53, 32
 For "A" Grade—161, 117, 105, 47

A study of this time-total report will make clear:

(1) That a "slow" student, willing to devote the time necessary, can make just as high a grade as can the "bright" student.

(2) That all "bright" students do not attempt (or attain) the highest grades; four bright students evidently were satisfied with a "C" or "recommending" grade, when additional time apparently would have given them "B" or "A."

(3) That the difference in preparation time requirements is very great as between "slow" and "bright" students; the average time-total of the slowest student approximating three times that of the "brightest" student attaining the same grade.

A similar study of time-totals as compared with averages attained in "daily" tests shows so little variation from the above that space is not taken for its insertion here.

When the "quantity-quality" method was applied to first-year as well as to second-year classes, time-totals declined very materially, in spite of endeavors to make the assignments of equal quantity and quality for equal grades. This is shown by the following tabulation of maximum and minimum time-totals for each grade in each of three classes:

	2d Year Govt.	1st Year Med. & Mod.	1st Year Engl. Hist.
For "A" Grade:			
Maximum total	161	72	†
Minimum total	47	72*	†
For "B" Grade:			
Maximum total	107	76	35
Minimum total	32	56	35‡
For "C" Grade:			
Maximum total	120	74	62
Minimum total	64	55	33
For "D" Grade:			
Maximum total	95	70	42
Minimum total	34	40	42¶

* Only one "A" grade in class.

† No "A" grades in class.

‡ Only one "B" grade in class.

¶ Only one "D" grade in class.

IV. STUDENT REACTIONS TO METHOD

When first introduced, the new "quantity-quality" method met with considerable opposition from students long accustomed to the method of "quality" alone. As time went on, this opposition steadily diminished. At the close of the first semester, those who attained good grades under the new method were almost unanimously friendly to it, while only about half of those obtaining low grades were hostile to it. A few who endorsed the general method itself, however, maintained that the amount of "additional" reading required for "C" and "B" grades was too large.

The membership of the class reported itself almost unanimously in favor of "daily" tests; some because the tests made them "keep steadily at work," others because the questions asked in the tests indicated "important" points and called their attention to errors that might be corrected before the review-test arrived.

Much to the instructor's surprise, the minimum-grade "make-up" work also met with almost unanimous approval; important errors of detail or of organization were thus caught in time, and not allowed to become permanently a part of the student's stock of information on the subject.

Class opinion was rather divided as to the desirability of the "new" type of tests. Nearly all approved of the fact that these tests laid emphasis on specific points, possible of definite correction. About half of the class asserted that they discouraged "bluffing" and "wandering," and actually tested one's

knowledge of the subject; the other half insisted that they encouraged "guessing"—one student was even seen to flip a coin to decide which of two answers he should choose in one of the few true-false tests.

To the instructor, the most interesting student reaction to the new method was that evidenced by the very frequent assertion that the student had "learned more history" (or government, as the case might be) than in "all his life before"—a result probably due more, however, to the daily and make-up tests than to the "quantity-quality" method itself.

V. CONCLUSIONS

From the year's experiment, the maker of it is inclined to draw the following conclusions:

(1) It is highly desirable to combine "quantity" demands with "quality" demands in social science courses. Such combined demands offer an increased incentive to the quicker or better student. This may not be the best method of providing this incentive, but it does accomplish it to a marked degree.

(2) For the majority of any class, it is desirable (though, as previously stated, not absolutely necessary) to "check up" on quantity as well as on quality of work done in a class.

(3) To secure more than the assigned work from the best (most capable) students, personality and discrimination on the part of the instructor must supplement the use of this, as of any other, method. Both are necessary in order to secure that high degree of interest necessary for volunteer or exploratory reading; and no "method" will take the place of them.

(4) The "reserve" grade referred to under sub-heading II of this article seems to operate under this method with no greater amount of dissatisfaction than under the ordinary "quality" method.

(5) The new or objective tests produce practically the same distribution of grades among the members of a class as do the more usual discussion or essay tests; but they do not to anything like an equal degree reveal the student's actual mastery of any topic, and ought not to be used exclusively in any course.

(6) On the whole, the "quantity-quality" method has produced results amply justifying its continuation and its perfecting to a higher degree of accuracy and efficiency. The principle involved seems entirely sound, and its application as successful as might reasonably be demanded for the length of time it has been attempted.

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An Experiment in Grading

An attempt to meet the problem of varying ability and varying interests in American History

BY ESTHER J. KING, RACINE HIGH SCHOOL, RACINE, WISCONSIN

Unfortunately, or probably fortunately, not all boys and girls are created equal. They are not endowed by their Creator with the ability to achieve the same ends or even to achieve the same ends in the same way. Education has tried for a long time to make all pupils conform to a certain type of training. If they failed to reach the goal by the customary route, they lost in the race for promotion. Or if any of them overestimated or underestimated his ability, the result was apt to be unsatisfactory. Today we realize that not all of the pupils should be required to attempt the same amount of work which only the candidate for the grade of E can accomplish. Furthermore, we have learned to our sorrow that a pupil cannot estimate the amount of work he can do; so he tries to do something which he cannot possibly finish successfully, when he ought to be doing that which he can do well. Or more often, a pupil is satisfied to do a mediocre piece of work simply because he has no way of measuring the amount of work he is capable of doing.

To help the pupil solve his problem, minimum requirements for grades of F, G, and E have been set. At the beginning of the semester, a mimeographed syllabus containing an explanation of these requirements, a study guide, suggested readings, and questions, is sold to the pupils for a few cents. The first semester's work is divided into seven parts, the second into five. A definite time limit is given to each piece of work. Each day the pupils are told where the majority of the class should be working. They may complete the required work as rapidly as they please in order to have time left for extra credit work. The supervised study method which we use allows the pupil to use his own initiative; it also establishes closer contact between pupil and teacher through the individual or small group conferences, that are in constant progress during the class period. The pupil can remedy poor methods of study and clear up individual difficulties because these are easily detected by the teacher when the conference groups are small. Thus the pupil eliminates unnecessary waste of time early in the semester.

The following is a sample of the first two pages of the syllabus for the first semester:

SEMESTER I

"Nothing in the past is dead to the man who would learn how it came to be."

GENERAL CLASS PROJECTS

1. Puritan intolerance—Salem witch trial and trial of a Quaker.
2. Dramatization of Continental Congresses.
3. Dramatization of scenes from the Constitutional Convention.

OUTLINES REQUIRED OF ALL

1. Debates in British Parliament—2 points.
2. The Financial History of the U. S.
3. Territorial Expansion and Slavery.
4. The Westward Movement.

5. The Development of Transportation and Communication.
6. Political Parties.
7. Tariff.
8. Biography—100-word topic on subject of the biog.
9. The Development of Education.
10. Democracy and the West.
11. Economic Forces in American History.
12. The Supreme Court in American History.
13. The Development of the Constitution.

Choose any one of the above and expand it into a thousand-word semester topic. You must hand in a bibliography showing the title, author, and exact pages of all books from which you get material. Footnotes must accompany all direct quotations.

EXTRA CREDIT PROJECTS

1. Debates in British Parliament—2 points.
2. A set of five cartoons illustrative of some historical event or question—3 points.
3. A play dramatizing some historical event—3 points.
4. Portrayal of colonial life—a diary, fantasy, or any other scheme that appeals to you—2 points.
5. Imaginary newspaper published at some momentous time in history—5 points.
6. Book report, one volume, *Chronicles of America*—5 points.
7. Book report, one volume, *The American Nation*—5 points.
8. Biography—1000-word topic on the subject of biography—5 points.
9. Poster—1 point.
10. Your reaction to any period of history in a five-hundred word topic—2 points.
11. Map for extra credit—1 point.

REQUIREMENTS FOR GRADES F, G, AND E

- I. Minimum requirements for grade of F.
 - A. All assignments in textbook.
 - B. Two hundred pages outside reading in any secondary history.
 - C. A thousand-word semester topic.
 - D. Notebook work as assigned.
- II. Minimum requirements for grade of G.
 - A. All requirements for grade of F.
 - B. Twenty-five pages of primary source material.
 - C. Five points extra credit.
- III. Minimum requirements for grade of E.
 - A. All requirements for grade of F.
 - B. Fifty pages primary source material.
 - C. Ten points extra credit.

REQUIRED MAPS

- No. 1. Period of Discovery.
- No. 2. Period of Discovery.
- No. 3. Atlantic Seaboard in Seventeenth Century.
- No. 4. Before French and Indian War.
- No. 5. After French and Indian War.
- No. 6. The United States in 1783.
- No. 7. Purchase of Louisiana.
- No. 8. Missouri Compromise.
- No. 9. Mexican War and Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo.
- No. 10. Territorial Growth of the U. S.

EXTRA CREDIT MAP

United States in 1789.

As can be seen by consulting these directions, the extra credit can be earned by carrying out an individual project for which a certain amount of credit is given. In this way we are making an attempt to solve the problem of varying interests. For the stu-

dent who likes to debate there is the opportunity to take part in a debate on the Stamp Act or on the question of the conciliation of the American colonies in the British Parliament. This not only gives the class some English history for background, but it involves research work in finding the arguments presented by the Englishmen who actually debated these questions. Another type of student likes to express himself through the creation of an imaginary newspaper, containing a news section where the facts dealing with a certain period of history may be set forth, an editorial section where he may express his own ideas on the subject, an advertising section and possibly some illustrations which reflect the life of the times. All of this requires careful and critical study of details. The dramatic instinct is strong in some pupils. These may earn extra credit by writing a dramatization of a certain event, such as a meeting of the Virginia House of Burgesses, or the Stamp Act Congress, or in the second semester, a meeting of the Senate of the sixteenth, thirty-first, or thirty-third Congresses. They like to stage this with the help of their classmates. Of course, the teacher must insist that the dramatization be based upon actual facts. Then in every class there are people who can draw. Special credit may be given for a series of cartoons illustrative of some event or tendency of the times they are studying. Special credit can also be earned by making posters. The inveterate reader may earn extra credit by reading and reporting on such books as *The Chronicles of America*, *The American Nation*, or any other worthwhile non-fiction books. Here the reading of biography can be encouraged. Countless other projects suggest themselves as the work progresses. Even the pupils suggest things that are of interest to them. One is surprised at the great amount of patient, careful work a pupil will do in carrying out a piece of work which interests him.

Finally, what results do we get through the use

of this grading scheme? Since we have no standardized tests in history, it is rather difficult to measure results. One can compare classes which were not subjected to this discipline with classes that were.

Below is a table of comparisons of four classes in American History taught in the first semester of the school year 1924-1925 when no definite requirements were announced at the beginning of the semester, and four classes of the same kind taught in the second semester of the school year 1925-1926 who were given the requirements at the beginning of the semester. The results shown in Table 1 are not as fair a comparison of results as those shown in Table 2, because other factors besides the method of instruction determine the percentage of failures.

TABLE I
First Semester, 1924-1925

	Am. Hist. I	Am. Hist. II
Enrollment	89	28
Dropped	8	1
Failed	11	2
Per cent. failed123	.071
Per cent. passed786	.892

Second Semester, 1925-1926

	Am. Hist. I	Am. Hist. II
Enrollment	56	58
Dropped	4	2
Failed	3	2
Per cent. failed053	.034
Per cent. passed875	.931

TABLE II

	First Semester 1924-1925	Second Semester 1925-1926
Number who read three books	0	1
Number who read two books	1	21
Number who read one book	11	39
Total number of books read	13	84
Number who took part in debates	19	32
Number who made newspapers	0	8
Number who wrote extra topics	0	5
Number who made cartoons	0	5
Number who wrote dramatizations	0	1
Number who made extra maps	0	4

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Adventurers in the Wilderness. By Clark Wissler, Constance Lindsay Skinner, and William Wood. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1925. 369 pp.

Toilers of Land and Sea. By Ralph Henry Gabriel. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1926. 340 pp.

The Epic of Industry. By Malcolm Keir. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1926. 329 pp.

The American Spirit in Letters. By Stanley Thomas Williams. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1926. 329 pp.

The American Spirit in Architecture. By Talbot Faulkner Hamlin. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1926. 333 pp.

These five volumes are the first to appear of the fifteen-volume series entitled *The Pageant of America*, projected by the Yale University Press six years ago. Edited by Professor Ralph H. Gabriel, of the Department of History of Yale University, this series in a very true sense admirably supplements *The Chronicles of America*, which also appeared under the auspices of the Yale University Press.

The Pageant of America is based on the idea that the history of American farming, American industry, American commerce, American art, American literature, American sport, in a word the institutional development of America, can be visualized and thereby made more understandable and interesting by means of the extensive use of pictures, maps, and other illustrative materials, arranged in chronological order and accompanied by appropriate narrative, short essays or captions. In undertaking its preparation and publication, its sponsors felt that the picture as auxiliary to the text had not received the serious attention it deserved. The employment of illustrations in texts had, in their opinion, been incidental rather than a dominating feature. Moreover, they entertained the notion that the few illustrations that were used were often historically incorrect, thus giving inaccurate and distorted views of events and scenes.

Few persons outside of those actually engaged in the preparation of the work probably have any notion of the enormous amount of time and scholarly effort expended

on it. For six years a staff of research workers combed every available source for material. All the important collections, both in the United States and abroad, were examined, thousands of books consulted, and correspondence conducted with a vast number of historical societies. All of the material thus unearthed was in turn carefully appraised in accord with the strictest criteria of the historical method. Where an authentic picture portraying an important point or event was lacking or could not be found, original drawings were prepared by distinguished historical artists. Furthermore, a large number of special maps were prepared by Gregor Noetzel, of the staff of the American Geographical Society.

Each of the five volumes under review, and these are typical of those which are to follow, contain approximately six hundred and fifty illustrations, and sixty thousand words of text. Each volume is prefaced by a brief essay or outline by the editor which summarily epitomizes its contents. These essays in themselves furnish a sort of topical outline of American history. The chapters in each volume are arranged chronologically, the pictures being arranged in natural and logical sequence. Short introductions and clear, concise captions under the pictures give unity and coherence.

Adventures in the American Wilderness, Volume I of the series, presents in pictorial form the story of the American Indian before the coming of the white man; the adventures of the Vikings; the early Portuguese navigators and their contribution to the conquest of unknown seas; Columbus and the realization of his great dream, the founding of New Spain and its subsequent expansion north and east to California and Louisiana; the rivalry of Spain and France in Florida; England's awakening, her challenge to Spain and the establishment of her colonial empire on the Atlantic seaboard; the founding of New France, and the inevitable struggle between France and Great Britain for the mastery of the North American Continent.

Toilers of Land and Sea, Volume III of series, illustrates the rise of American agriculture from its early beginnings to the present. Pictures and original drawings show its background in the feudal manor and what the white man learned about it from the Indians. These are followed by dozens of pictures depicting colonial agriculture and the transition from colonial husbandry to nineteenth century methods, which Professor Gabriel well calls "The Agrarian Awakening." The story of the "Cotton Kingdom," the westward march of the pioneer, the cow country and the coming of the homesteader, are likewise depicted. A galaxy of pictures show how science and invention transformed the old farm into the modern agricultural establishment. The influence of the Grange and other co-operative enterprises, the farmer's reaction to politics, and the life of the present-day farmer are also pictured. The concluding chapter, entitled "The Harvest of the Sea," is an illuminating description of our fishing and whaling industries.

The Epic of Industry, Volume V of series, is an admirable companion to the *Toilers of Land and Sea*. It pictures the primitive era of muscular energy, the harnessing of the forces of nature, the colossal expansion of industry during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The pictures devoted to the steam-engine and its improvements, to the development of power, and to the lumbering and mining industries, are especially noteworthy. The human side of our industrial civilization is also stressed by the inclusion of many pictures of great industrial pioneers, the man on the job, and the conditions under which he works, and the history of organized labor.

The American Spirit in Letters, Volume XI of series, is a fascinating pictorial narrative of the development of American literature from pioneer days to the present. It reveals in striking fashion the significant tendencies of early colonial and pre-Revolutionary literature, as well as the satire and controversy of the Revolutionary period and of the era of Washington and Jefferson. Interesting chapters portray the Knickerbocker group and the Transcendentalists. The last three chapters typify the literature of the "New America," from 1900 on. The pictures in this vol-

ume include portraits and contemporary sketches of writers from first editions and early magazines; scenes and subjects of outstanding poems, novels and essays; early newspaper notices; facsimiles of manuscripts, and title pages of first editions. Nowhere, in the opinion of the reviewer, is there a more succinct and correlated history of our literature which everyone can intelligently grasp and understand.

The American Spirit in Architecture, Volume XIII of series, with its hundreds of illustrations covering practically every phase of American architecture, from the European background of the first settlements to the present day, fills a long-felt gap in the history of American development. No one can turn the pages of this book without noting the prosperity of Colonial America as revealed in its stately manor house or merchant's home, and in the imposing churches. Nor can he fail to see how, in the early days of the republic, the classic Greek and Roman revivals held sway, only to give way in turn to the ugly structures which characterized the industrial and pioneering days of the Civil War era. Chapter XIII, entitled "Beginnings of the American Renaissance, 1880-1900," shows how a new national ideal began to express itself. The remaining chapters trace for the most part the history of various kinds of buildings, including banks, industrial plants, clubs, apartment houses, hotels, theatres, residences and churches. The illustrations show careful selection and the narrative is interesting and extremely informing.

In craftsmanship, the publishers have more than maintained their enviable record. The pictures are printed from original half-tone plates rather than from electroplate half-tones. The paper is soft and not the kind to produce eyestrain, and the pictures are remarkably clear. The printing and binding are exceptionally well done, a feature of the latter being the distinctive inside cover design.

Without question these volumes are a distinct contribution to the literature of American history, and in a larger sense, to American education. To the teacher of American history, whether in the grades, high school, or college, the volumes will constitute an asset whose value it is difficult to overestimate. Certainly no pupil, and in fact no person, can turn the pages of these volumes without gaining a clearer insight and a better understanding of America and of its life and development. They should be in every library throughout the land. Everyone interested in something more than political narrative and "chip-on-your-shoulder" patriotism are deeply obligated to all those responsible for this splendid enterprise of which the five volumes are a part.

C.

The Rise of Modern History. By J. L. Hammond and Barbara Hammond. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1926. xii, 281 pp.

Those who are acquainted with the previous writings of the Hammonds on English economic life in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries will recognize in this work the results of their studies in the more limited field of their earlier books. They have introduced some new data in the first part, where aspects of the commercial revolution are discussed as antecedents of the industrial revolution, and they have attempted a somewhat more comprehensive view of the consequences of modern industrialism, but the book is in the main an attempt to generalize and perhaps to popularize the detailed information contained in their *Village Laborer*, *Town Laborer*, *Skilled Laborer*, and *Lord Shaftesbury*. With the exception of the earlier portions, the work is almost exclusively concerned with English industry. There is a certain unevenness, due to the fact that some portions are based on the authors' intimate researches, while other portions, particularly the first part, are evidently the result of somewhat casual study and reflection. A relatively high standard of accuracy is maintained. The book, however, is not so much a statement of facts as an interpretation. The authors are concerned not only with promoting understanding, but with stimulating interest in the problems of industrial society.

There is evidence of enthusiasm not without a mingling of calm disillusion. A sympathetic attitude toward the reforms connected with "the beginnings of a new society" is apparent, but it is recognized that "when man leaves behind him the fading dusk, it is to set his face toward a doubtful dawn." They seem to have hope of self-determined progress by "the gradual escape of man's mind from the relation of use to the relation of fellowship," but their conclusion is somewhat fatalistic in tone: "The industrial revolution takes its place in the infinite rhythm that the life of man obeys" in all places and all times.

WITT BOWDEN.

University of Pennsylvania.

A History of England from the Defeat of the Armada to the Death of Elizabeth. Volume II. By E. P. Cheyney. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1926. viii, 589 pp. \$6.50.

This volume follows thirteen years after its predecessor and completes the author's picture of a period of history which had been seriously neglected. He has not, for various reasons, been able to do in these volumes all that he had planned, but he must be relieved and his readers be grateful that so much has finally been achieved. For one thing, the defeat of the Armada, important as that event was, receives its proper setting, not as the end of the Spanish menace to England, but as quite the most serious of a series of repulses suffered by Spain. For another, England itself is seen, as in no other account, in those doubtful days when the Queen was aging and frail, and the succession was still unsettled, when famine was abroad in the land, when Puritanism persisted in struggling against Uniformity, when Ireland was a crucial problem, when the international situation was in a state of flux, and when Government was indulging in the greatest programme of intervention in local affairs which the island had seen. If Professor Cheyney had provided only his plain tale of events he would have justified the publication of his two volumes. The story has been scattered about in printed and unprinted source materials, in monographs of varying authority, or scantily treated in general histories. Now it is unemotionally but attractively presented almost in the vein of a chronicle, from which there may be selected the separate stories of the Cadiz Expedition, the Armada of 1596, the genesis of the Triple Alliance, and the decline and fall of Essex.

The central portion of the volume deals with the last four parliaments of the reign and with local government, and it is not only of obvious authority, but interesting reading as well. It will be even more interesting to the student who follows the footnote references to printed sources like D'Ewes' journals of the parliaments or Tanner's excellent collection of constitutional documents. The social and economic legislation of the latter part of the reign is seen in the making, and the growing self-consciousness and self-esteem of the Commons in contrast with the stubborn vigour of a true Tudor queen are revealed perhaps as clearly as in the pages of D'Ewes himself. Readers, however, will probably turn often to this volume for its careful description of the justice of the peace, on whose astonishingly sturdy shoulders the central government piled duty after duty until we are forced to conclude that the Elizabethan country gentleman must have stumbled under the load and dropped an occasional item of it. Many a second-hand book-shop in Britain will yield to the curious well-thumbed sixteenth and seventeenth century editions of the manuals from which the squires learned their duties and their law, e. g., Lambard's "Eirenarcha" and Dalton's three manuals on local government. Rarer are the manuals of Marrow and Fitzherbert. Lambard tells of two hundred and ninety-three statutes passed before 1603 by which jurisdiction or duties were given the justices, and the seventy-eight of Elizabeth's reign ranged from "the preservation of the spawn and frye of fish" to "fond and fantastical prophesies." In less than thirty pages the author draws a notable picture of the rural factotum, and in later pages adds to his gallery the

sheriff, the lord lieutenant and his deputies, the coroner, the constables, the church wardens, the surveyors of the highways, and the overseers of the poor.

Professor Cheyney apologizes for omissions from the scheme forecasted in 1913, and of them the reader will most regret the social and intellectual life of the time and the ecclesiastical tangle. For a glimpse of the former he can turn to the vivid first two chapters of Trevelyan's *England Under the Stuarts*, but for the latter he must choose among a large number of unequal monographs. The absence of a bibliography to this volume is explained in the light of the contemporary Anglo-American preparation of definitive bibliographies for both Tudor and Stuart periods.

BARTLET BRENNER.

Columbia University.

The Background of Modern French Literature. By C. H. C. Wright. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1926. xiv, 329 pp. \$2.00.

That literary and social history are vitally interrelated is a commonplace. But books demonstrating that interrelation are not common, since they require for their production versatile and thorough scholarship. Hitherto they have come chiefly from the social rather than the literary historian, at least in England and the United States. So one gives especial welcome to a study of the social background of modern French letters by an American professor of literature.

Mr. Wright is equipped with the information that comes from a lifetime of study. His conception of literature embraces much more than *belles lettres*; his use of satiric songs of the street is especially effective. He sees letters in a great variety of contacts; with political and economic movements and doctrines, with changing styles in painting, architecture, music, furniture, manners, and dress. Over fifty full-page illustrations admirably reinforce his points. The reader is aided by frequent references to English and American literature and life; Thackeray's *Paris Notebooks* give particularly interesting sidelights.

Unfortunately Mr. Wright seems uncertain of his audience. The compass of the book (it covers the period between 1789 and the present day in some 115,000 words), and its frequent concessions to popular prejudice suggest a manual for the college student or the general reader. It hastens to inform the virtuous American that the questionable turn of French literature since 1870 is the result of a widening gap between literature and life, and that the great majority of the French people are moral and wholesome. It gives a cold shoulder to artistic Bohemia, which is represented as sordid, wretched, and secretly envious of the *bourgeoisie* it satirizes. The brothers Goncourt are labelled as "neurotic degenerates" (whatever that means), and there is a reference to "the morbidity of Ibsen." Mr. Wright deprecates scientific analysis of religion and social institutions; Taine's deterministic doctrines are exhibited as evidence of the "materialism" of the Second Empire. Political influences are emphasized to the neglect of the more disturbing economic factors. "Syndicalism," Mr. Wright remarks, "as a form of socialism to remedy labor grievances is too predominantly economic to enter largely into the present study, which is chiefly literary." While thus too elementary and politic to satisfy the scholar, the book is too colorless and too uninterpreted to appeal to a wide public. It tends to become a mere collection of notes to school texts, without unifying purpose or design.

Yet one wonders whether these defects do not come from an aloofness from modern life rather than from an attempt at popularization. Where, the reader asks, would one find "the rich North American idler and his cake-walk" whom Mr. Wright lists among the manifestations of contemporary Parisian cosmopolitanism? Mr. Wright reproduces with skill the tones and colors of the monarchy of July and the Second Empire, but the final quarter of his study dealing with literature since 1870 is so unsympathetic and inadequate as to have well been omitted.

Despite these faults, *The Background of Modern French Literature* remains a reference book of value even to the mature scholar, and a suggestive pioneer in a little-occupied field. Its method could be fruitfully applied to other periods of French literature, and to English and American literatures, which have hitherto received much less attention from scholars with a social vision. Mr. Wright's errors could easily be avoided by writers with the twentieth century point of view and a sense of drama. Such writers would not only solve the chief problem of the teaching of literature, that of making all literature contemporary to the general reader, but would also bring the social historian in contact with classic expressions of significant national and racial attitudes in the past.

EMERY NEFF.

Columbia University.

United States; Its Past and Present. By Henry W. Elson. American Book Company, New York, 1926. 588 pp.

The Making of America. By Grace Vollintine. Ginn and Company, New York, 1925. 270 pp.

Our Nation's Heritage. By Reuben Post Halleck and Juliette Frantz. American Book Company, New York, 1925. 430 pp.

These three volumes are texts for the upper grammar grades, and as might be expected, cover much the same material.

Dr. Elson's volume is admirably suited both in accuracy and interest to meet its intended need. Human interest and human action are emphasized throughout. The diction is easy and readable. Care has been exercised in the matter of proportion and in the use of illustrations and maps. The teaching material at the end of each chapter and the "Side Talks" at the close of some of the chapters are quite suggestive and thoroughly worthwhile. The textbook should go a long way toward making American History popular in the upper grammar grades. Perhaps the book is a little long to be thoroughly covered in all schools, but that problem can easily be handled by a competent teacher.

The Halleck and Frantz book is concise and graphic. The authors have pictured in a simple and easy flowing manner the leading steps by which European peoples finally discovered and settled America. The appeal to the child's imagination is strong throughout and deserves especial praise. The summaries at the end of the chapters have been prepared with considerable care and act as a constant challenge to the pupils to live over again in their imagination the scenes about which they have been reading. Another strong point is the large number of well-chosen pictures and maps. Many of them are out of the ordinary, and add considerably to the attractiveness and helpfulness of the book.

Miss Vollintine's book is, in the opinion of the reviewer, one of the best of its kind on the market, and should have a wide appeal. The author has a rare gift of narration and description. Her word-pictures are of a high order and yet suited to the vocabulary and understanding of children of the age intended; in fact, the selection and arrangement of the subject matter show careful preparation. The author's knowledge and love of her subject manifest themselves throughout. The illustrations are well suited to meet the demands of the book, but there should be a few more maps.

GEORGE W. VANVLECK.

Brooklyn, N. Y.

America's Message. Edited by Will C. Wood, Alice Cecilia Cooper, and Frederick A. Rice. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1925. xii, 347 pp. \$1.20.

The editors have purposed to bring together a collection of selections from American literature which reveal the ideals of American life to high school students. The contents are divided into five groups: selections on the meaning of the flag and of patriotism; pioneer stories; several accounts of the manner in which men have succeeded in America, suggestively entitled "The Land of Oppor-

tunity"; a section glorifying "The Day's Work" in accounts of those who by honesty, ingenuity, and courage have done their tasks exceedingly well; and, lastly, "American Ideals," which is the weakest part of the book. The "Helps to Study" at the end contain leading questions on each selection and suggestions for supplementary readings for those whose interest has been stimulated.

As the editors have pointed out, logical order and completeness are sacrificed to variety and interest. Various walks of life and different sections of the country are represented, always very readably. The pupil will enjoy his assignments; the older reader will either leave realities behind him, or wish that life might really be like that. The little volume contains much of the best that America has contributed to our civilization, and presents standards of conduct for the individual in his relation to his work, his fellow-man, and his country. It should give the pupil the feeling that the characters in his history lessons are very real people, and that an understanding of their lives will enable him to live his own better and more abundantly.

That the reading of *America's Message* will give anyone a definite picture of American ideals can scarcely be expected. It has been said that only America could produce such characters as Abraham Lincoln, Henry Ford, Theodore Roosevelt, William Jennings Bryan, and Billy Sunday; each typically American, and yet, how different! The editors have brought together quite successfully selections that carry in them various aspects of this spirit, called American.

G. ADOLF KOCH.

Columbia College.

Gold of Ophir or the Lure that Made America. By Sydney Greenbie and Marjorie Greenbie. Doubleday, Page and Company, Garden City and New York, 1925. xix, 330 pp. \$4.00.

Mr. and Mrs. Sydney Greenbie have written on a phase of history that deserves special attention in accounts of our national development. Their *Gold of Ophir* can be read with profit both by the general reader and by the professional historian. For the latter the book contains stimulus and provocative suggestion of a welcome order. For those whose interests are not specialized it offers an interesting, open road to a knowledge of the foundations of our relations with Eastern Asia and the Pacific. It is a vivid reminder that China is something more than a twentieth-century problem on the hands of the world, that she was an early source of wealth to our own country, being part and parcel of its history, and that in the Orient there existed a land of romance for thousands of our forebears—merchants, seamen, shipbuilders, and statesmen.

The Greenbies are not professional historians; they are alert, sympathetic students and observers whose interest seems to center in the experience which they can share for themselves and pass on to others. They wield a pen—or pens—suited to this work. Out of their years of experience in the Orient there has come to them a consciousness that if the races around the Pacific rim are to live and work in sensible harmony it is desirable that they take stock of the interests which they have possessed in common. That is history. Using the works of orthodox historians, as well as many original sources, the authors have presented their materials with a definite and unified emphasis upon the importance of the history of American relations with the East to about 1860, in commerce, in politics, and in literature. Their treatment of the last of these is especially suggestive, with its reminder that most of us have our eyes so firmly fixed on the Occident that we cannot see the Oriental influences that have become a part of us, a point admirably stressed in the number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for October, 1925 (page 261).

Apart from the readability of the book its great merit is this emphasis upon an experience mutually belonging to East and West; this is as good as the best peace proposals. There exists nevertheless a danger of stressing a favorite idea to the exclusion of all else. After all, we cannot forget that however large a part the drive to the

Orient played in the early life of the United States and in the minds of some statesmen, there were economic, social, political, and perhaps entirely fortuitous factors which also account for the expansion of the nation from sea to sea. No extended comment is here possible on these matters, but it may be suggested that, had the settlers of the Middle West and the Far West been greatly thrilled by the glories of the Orient, they would hardly have failed to leave to their descendants some recognizable tradition. It is a fair question whether such a tradition can be proven to exist.

With this caution the reader may feel that *Gold of Ophir* will prove a treasure. He may ignore the dis-service which the publishers in their advertising have done the authors by exaggerating the central idea beyond any warrant of the text. A second edition will doubtless take care of various minor slips of word and of fact which the careful student of history would note. The book deserves wide reading; historians will find a helpful challenge in its interpretation. For this reason it can be asserted that a thorough-going professional review of its different elements is needed; this would read as interestingly as the book itself and should yield useful ideas.

ELDON GRIFFIN.

New Haven, Conn.

History of Human Society. By Frank W. Blackmar. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1926. xii, 512 pp.

Lyell and Darwin did not address a wholly unprepared world when, towards the middle of the last century, they began to lay the foundations of two new sciences. The way had been made straight for them by the German and French philosophies of history, which in one way or another had used the idea of historical continuity to preach the doctrine of progress. It is but just, therefore, that the theory of evolution, through a sort of marriage with its past, should have given birth to yet other philosophies of history devoted to the promulgation of newer and more scientific doctrines of cosmic and terrestrial betterment. Thus the new movements in science tremendously extended the spatial and temporal range of man's vision, and at the same time raised the dust of complacency and narrowness to blind his eyes. It is a little amusing, and more than a little pitiful, as one looks back nowadays over the early literature of anthropology, to see that new science expending so much of its energies in a shallow justification of the near and now.

By today a good many social scientists have worked themselves around to an appreciation of the comparative point of view. But not all; for here is Professor Blackmar's book to remind us that the old order of things can still persist unchanged. The purpose is a commendable one—to tell us how our culture came to be what it is. But the story is told without the slightest reference to recent researches in anthropology, and with only the meagerest dependence on recent historical studies. To name only a few of the more important glaring mistakes and deficiencies: primitive cultures are treated with shameful inadequacy; only one and a half pages are devoted to the place of India and China in civilization (the general level of the information here conveyed is to be seen in the statement that "the Taoan religion of China...was founded by Tao Tse"); the importance of Egyptian art is minimized; the account of Greek philosophy is inaccurate and trivial throughout, no mention being made of *phusis* or of the Greek conception of knowledge; there is no real account of Greek science, either in itself or in its contrasts to modern science; there is a very inadequate account of the various strands of influence which combined in Christianity; there are touching pictures—for Nordies—of the "home life" of the wandering Teutonic tribes; the middle ages are hopelessly caricatured, being regarded solely as a purgatory of preparation for "the modern era of progress"; the borrowed nature of the great Arab culture is heavily emphasized; there is no discussion of the place of Aristotle in medieval thought—but one might go on—in the catalogue of sins indefinitely.

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In addition, there are a large number of simple errors of fact. Taken all in all, however, the most unpleasant feature of the work, because it pervades it everywhere and stultifies even its modest virtues, is the placid conviction that the latest sons of western civilization are by that very fact alone the most favored of the children of time.

Columbia University.

JOHN STORCK.

In his *White Servitude in Pennsylvania, Indentured and Redemption Labor in Colony and Commonwealth* (John Joseph McVey, Philadelphia, 1926. ix, 330 pp.), Cheesman A. Herrick presents a wealth of information about Pennsylvania's earlier labor system. The work, which is based largely on manuscript material, is divided into five parts. In the first, entitled Introductory, two chapters trace the influence of labor on colonial development, and the story of indentured labor in Pennsylvania before 1700. The demand for indentured and redemption servants form the content of part II, the sources of supply of indentured servants part III, and the indentured system in operation part IV. In the conclusion, which constitutes part V, Dr. Herrick traces the later history and disappearance of the redemption system, and summarizes its results as far as Pennsylvania was concerned. In this connection he voices the opinion that while it was neither an unmixed good nor an unmixed evil, it influenced Pennsylvania's social and industrial development to a greater extent than it did any of her sister commonwealths. In addition to appendices showing an emigration record from Great Britain, and giving a summary of the legislation affecting white servitude in Pennsylvania, and a fairly full biographical note, the book carries a number of interesting illustrations in the form of accounts, petitions, and records. The work as a whole is a valuable addition to the growing literature of the social and economic aspects of American history.

General History of the World. By Victor Duruy, revised and continued to 1901 by Edwin A. Grosvenor with supplemental chapters to 1925, by Mabel S. C. Smith and J. Walker McSpadden. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1925. xi, 931 pp. This new edition of Duruy's

standard work represents a great deal more labor in the way of revision than is suggested by the statement on the title-page. The present revisers have practically rewritten the period since 1848, besides bringing the story up to date. Noteworthy among the changes made is the increased space given to the United States and Latin-America. In the medieval and modern sections a number of minor details have been omitted in this edition; mention should also be made of the considerable alterations in the pages dealing with ancient China and India. The appearance and usefulness of the work have been improved by the omission of the pictorial prints in the 1912 edition, and the addition of 30 full-page maps in color and a full index.

CARL L. LOKKE.

Books on History and Government published in the United States from March 26 to August 28, 1926

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- Adams, James Fuslow. *New England in the republic, 1776-1850.* Boston: Little-Brown. 452 pp. \$5.00.
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- Brewer, Daniel C. *The conquest of New England by the immigrant.* N. Y.: Putnam. 375 pp. \$2.00.
- Bruffey, George. *Eighty-one years in the West.* Butte, Mont.: Author, *Care of Butte Mining Co.* 152 pp. \$1.00.
- Burnett, E. C., editor. *Letters of members of the Continental Congress; Vol. 3. Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1778.* Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. 624 pp. \$4.75.
- Celeste, Sister Mary. *An American history.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 682 pp. \$1.60.
- Coleman, Emma L. *New England captives carried to Canada between 1677-1760; 2 vols.* Portland, Me.: Southworth Press. 800 pp. \$10.00.
- Cook, Roy B. *Lewis County [W. Va.] in the Spanish-American war.* Charleston, W. Va.: Jarrett Pr. Co., 706 Donnally St.
- Coulter, E. Merton. *The civil war and readjustment in Kentucky.* Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. Press. 476 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$3.60.
- Curti, Merle E. *Austria and the United States, 1848-1852; a study in diplomatic relations.* Northampton, Mass.: Smith College.
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- Hague, Elizabeth F., and Chalmers, M. *Dramatic moments in American history [a reader for schools].* Lincoln, Neb.: Univ. Pub. Co. 347 pp. \$1.16.
- Hazelton, Henry I. *The boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens, Counties of Nassau and Suffolk, Long Island, N. Y., 1609-1924.* N. Y.: Lewis Historical Pub. Co. \$37.50.
- Herrick, Cheesman A. *White servitude in Pennsylvania.* Philadelphia: J. J. McVey, 1229 Arch St. 339 pp. (18 p. bibl.). \$4.50.
- Hills, Norman E. *A history of Kelley's Island, Ohio.* Toledo, Ohio: The Author. 156 pp. \$4.00.
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